


ELEMENTS
OF
COMPOSITION
AND
GRAMMAR

Southworth & Gouldard





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OF
COMPOSITION AND GRAMMAR

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οὐ πόλλ' ἀλλὰ πολύ

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PREFACE.

As its title implies, the design of this book is twofold: (1) to provide for children such training in the ready use of good English, as they can never get by the study of grammar alone; and (2) to teach them the essential facts regarding the structure of sentences, and the kinds, forms, and uses of words. In recognition of the importance of this training, material for it has been given in abundance and variety in the first nine chapters, while in the rest of the book the grammar of the language is so presented as to be thoroughly intelligible to children.

Though both composition and grammar contribute in greater or less degree to the same end, the ability to use language intelligently and with facility, yet they differ essentially in their character and method of treatment. For this reason as well as to secure a logical and orderly presentation of subjects, in the arrangement of the book no attempt has been made to intermingle exercises in composition with work in grammar. Indeed, such is the diversity of opinion as to when children should begin the study of grammar, and such the consequent difference in their previous training and practice in the use of language, that composition-work selected for one class of beginners might be wholly inappropriate for another. It has been thought best, therefore, to leave the teacher, who alone can judge correctly, to make selections in kind and quantity suited to the varying age, attainments, and needs of different classes.

Beginning with the sentence at Chapter X. the essentials of grammatical form and structure are simply and clearly presented. Abrupt transitions are avoided, and with a view to educating the reason as well as the understanding, an effort has been made to have each part naturally and logically connected with what precedes and what follows it. Each subject, moreover, is fully explained and illustrated, often

by inductive exercises, so that thoughtful study of the sections in large type and of the illustrative examples will enable the learner without much further help to apprehend the most important principles, and to apply them intelligently in the practical exercises which make up much of the body of the book.

No chapter is entitled Syntax; but the construction of sentences is developed from the beginning as fast and as fully as practicable, so that a child's acquaintance with verbs, for instance, is by no means deferred until he reaches the chapter so headed. Without intentionally omitting any essential principle, much that has been engrafted upon English grammar from other languages is left out as false or burdensome. The invariable basis of classification for the parts of speech is *use*, and for inflection it is *form*. Cases, for example, are always treated as *forms*, of which the noun has two, and a few pronouns three, the many *constructions* of these parts of speech being considered separately. In the direction of simplicity verb-phrases are distinguished from simple verbs.

For presenting the analysis of sentences to the eye, a new and simple method is followed. Its value has been thoroughly tested both in illustrative blackboard work and in the preparation of lessons by classes. It is easily applied to all ordinary sentences without re-writing them, or writing them in an extended form. For long or involved sentences other methods are substituted.

Infinitives and participles receive more extended treatment than customary, because, being as common and as important as other elements of the sentence, they ought to be equally well understood; and their construction has been developed with a view to making even children see that it is generally the same as that of nouns and adjectives.

Very little is said of idioms or of elliptical expressions. Such of them as are not too difficult for any but well-advanced students, can be readily explained by one who is familiar with the regular construction.

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TO TEACHERS.

THIS book is designed for students who are old enough to learn the elements of grammar and who have had some elementary training in the use of language. After taking up the first three or four chapters by way of review, they may profitably begin to study the sentence and its elements; that is to say, Chapters X. and following.

Practice in oral and written composition must, however, be continued throughout the entire school course, and for this purpose the first seventy-five pages furnish ample instruction and material. These pages are by no means to be used consecutively, but selections from them adapted to the varying needs of learners, are to be made in such a way that *exercise in the use of language may constantly accompany the study of its structure.*

CHAPTER I.

LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR.

1. Ever since we began to talk we have been learning the use of language; that is, we have been learning how to make other persons know what we want and what we think and how we feel, by **speaking** to them **in words** which they will hear and understand.

As we grew older we learned to express our thoughts and feelings by **writing our words** for others to see and read; and in this way, if we were all deaf and dumb, we should still be able to use our language.

2. The letters used in *writing* a word merely stand for the sounds we make in *speaking* it, so that it is really the same language we use in these two ways, and the words are the same.

3. The *Study of Language* is the study of words and of the proper use of them in expressing what we have to say.

4. In our language, — the English, spoken first only in England, but now used in many other parts of the world, — there are thousands and thousands of words, each with a different meaning. It is by our study of language that we are to become familiar with the pronunciation, the spelling, and the meaning of these words, and to acquire readiness in using them to express our thoughts.

(a) By this study, too, we shall learn to choose right forms of appropriate words and to put them together properly in our sentences. This knowledge will enable us to correct the wrong habits of speaking and writing into which ignorance or carelessness or the imitation of bad examples may have led us.

5. The surest way to become skilful in the use of language is by **constant practice** in correct speaking and writing. We should read books that are written in the best English, and we should study and imitate the best writers and speakers in our choice of words and in our way of putting them together, so that we may use our language easily, as a good workman uses his tools, and so that we may be able to correct our own errors.

6. Besides doing all this, it will be well to understand a little more about *words*, and to learn some of the *rules* for using them. For, although we do not think about rules when we are speaking, they will make it easier for us to study examples of good English, and to form correct habits ourselves. It is pleasant, too, to feel that we know about our language, and that we can reason about our forms of expression.

While studying language, then, we ought also to learn how some of our words have been made from others; how they are all divided into classes; how their forms are changed; and how they are put together in sentences. This includes what is called **English grammar**.

7. *Grammar* shows how words are made, how their forms are changed, and how they are put together in sentences according to their kinds.

CHAPTER II.

CAPITALS, PUNCTUATION, ETC.

8. When **speaking**, we ought to vary our **tones** and the length of our **pauses**, so as to make our sentences as expressive as possible. So in **writing**, we should always make our meaning as clear as we can, by using **capital letters** in the proper places, and by dividing our sentences with **marks of punctuation**.

I. RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITALS, ETC.

9. A **Capital Letter** should be used to begin —

1. Every sentence.
2. Every line of poetry.
3. Every direct quotation. [See p. 7.]
4. All individual or special names of persons, places, months, and days; as, —

William Shakespeare, Spain, September, Saturday

(a) All words made from them; as, —

Shakespearean; Spanish.

(b) And all abbreviations of them; as, —

Wm., Sept.

5. All names applied to God.

6. The principal words in titles. Thus:—

The President of the United States.
 “The Land of the Midnight Sun.”

7. The words I and O.

10. **Italics** [*Italic letters*] are used in printing, for —

(a) A word that is very emphatic.

(b) Short titles of books; names of ships; etc.

In writing, we should underline such words or titles.

II. RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.

11. The **Period** [.] must be used after —

I. Every complete sentence that is not a question nor an exclamation.

II. All abbreviations or initial letters.

III. A heading, title, or signature, when used alone.

12. The **Question-mark** [?] must be used after —

IV. Every complete question.

13. The **Exclamation-point** [!] must be used after —

V. Every expression that is very exclamatory.

14. The **Comma** [,] must be used to separate from the rest of the sentence —

VI. The name of the person spoken to. Thus:—

John, come forward.

VII. A direct quotation, or each of the parts of one if it is divided. [See p. 8.]

The **Comma** must also be used to separate —

VIII. Words and expressions of the same kind when there are not words between to connect them all. Thus:—

The flags were red, white, and blue.

IX. The parts of a sentence that is made up of two or more sentences. Thus:—

We have come, and you must go.

15. The **Apostrophe** ['] must be used to denote —

X. Possession. [See §§ 233, 293.]

XI. The omission of letters in contracted words.

16. **Quotation-marks** [" "] must be used to enclose —

XII. Every direct quotation, or each of the parts into which it is divided. [See Rule VII. and §§ 20–24.]

XIII. The title of a book or periodical, if the title is long.

17. The **Hyphen** [-] must be used to separate —

XIV. The parts of some compound words.

XV. The syllables of a word written on different lines.

EXERCISE I.

Tell why each punctuation-mark is used in these sentences:—

[The numbers at the end refer to the rules on pages 4 and 5.]

1. How many days are there in a leap year? (iv)
2. Can Honor's voice provoke the silent dust? (iv; x)
3. Boys, have you ever read "Tom Brown at Rugby"? (vi; xiii)
4. Now abideth faith, hope, charity. (viii)
5. The houses were low, narrow, and dingy. (viii)
6. Julius Cæsar wrote, "I came, I saw, I conquered." (vii; xii)
7. "Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other." (ix; xii)
8. Which sounds better, "No, sir, I can't"; or, "Yes, ma'am, I'll try"? (vii; vi; xi; xii)
9. "Little Lord Fauntleroy" was originally published in *St Nicholas*. (xiii; ii; § 10 (b))

EXERCISE 2.

Write the following as six lines of poetry. Indent every other line, beginning with the second. There should be nine capitals.

"I would not hurt a living thing, however weak or small; the beasts that graze, the birds that sing, our father made them all; without his notice, I have read, a sparrow cannot fall."

EXERCISE 3.

Write answers to the following, making complete sentences, and applying the rules for **punctuation**:—

1. What three manufacturing cities are on the Merrimac? (viii)
2. What fruits grow within the tropics? (viii)
3. What is the title of the last book that you read? (xiii)
4. Into what do the St. Lawrence and Mississippi rivers flow? (ix)
5. Whose dictionary do you use? (x)
6. Write the following with three contractions: Do you not think he will say it is too much? (xi)
7. Name the natural divisions of time. (viii)
8. What materials are used in building houses? (viii)
9. Ask your teacher a question, using her name and title. (vi; iv)
10. Give the exact date and time of writing this exercise, and add your signature. (ii; iii)

EXERCISE 4.

1. Answer these questions orally in **complete sentences**.
2. Answer them in writing, applying the rules for **capitals and punctuation**.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. What is your full name? | 6. To what foreign lands would |
| 2. In what town, county, and state | you especially like to go? |
| were you born? | 7. What rivers have you seen? |
| 3. What is your birthday? | 8. What holidays do you most |
| 4. What is your favorite book? | enjoy? |
| 5. What newspaper or magazine | 9. Why are they celebrated? |
| do you read? | 10. Who is governor of the state? |

III. SENTENCES AND PARAGRAPHS.

18. The letters that make a word are written close together, but we leave a little space between the words that make a sentence.

Between two sentences we should leave twice as much space as between two words.

19. A **Paragraph** is a group of sentences more closely connected in meaning with one another than with what precedes or follows. A single sentence may make a paragraph. It should begin on a *separate line*, and a little farther from the margin than the other lines begin.

EXERCISE 5.

1. Answer the following questions in sentences, arranging your replies in two paragraphs. Where will the second paragraph begin?

What is a farmer? What does he do in the spring? In the summer? In the autumn? What tools does he use? What does he raise? What kinds of animals does he keep? Would you like to be a farmer? Give your reason.

What is a blacksmith? What is the place in which he works called? Tell the use of his bellows. His anvil. What other tools does he use? Why is his business a useful one?

2. Write two paragraphs comparing the life of a soldier with that of a sailor.

IV. QUOTATIONS.

20. When we introduce the exact language of another person into what we are writing, we make what is called a **Direct Quotation**. Thus:—

Prince Edward and his division were so hard pressed that a message was sent to the King asking for aid. "Is my son killed?" said

the King. "No, sire." "Is he wounded or thrown to the ground?" "No, sire," said the messenger; "but he is very hard pressed." "Then," said the King, "I shall send no aid; because I am resolved that the honor of a great victory shall be his."

21. In writing a direct quotation, we must remember three things:—

- (1) To begin it with a capital.
- (2) To enclose it in quotation-marks.
- (3) To separate it from the rest of the sentence by a comma, unless it is a question or an exclamation.

If the quotation consists of several sentences, it may be preceded by a colon [:].

22. When we introduce anything into our writing as a thought or an opinion of another without using his exact language, we make an **Indirect Quotation**. Thus:—

DIRECT. The King said, "**I have** lost the hearts of **my** people."

INDIRECT. The King said that **he had** lost the hearts of **his** people.

Indirect Quotations frequently begin with the word "that," and they require no quotation-marks.

EXERCISE 6.

Change the direct quotations on page 10 into indirect.

23. A **Divided Quotation** is one which is given in two parts, with some of the writer's own words between.

Each part should be enclosed in quotation-marks, and generally separated from the rest by commas. Thus:—

"I propose to fight it out on this line," wrote General Grant, "if it takes all summer."

24. In writing a conversation between two persons,

what each one says should generally occupy a separate paragraph. Thus:—

“Colonel Miller,” asked General Brown, “can you silence that battery?”

“I’ll try, sir,” replied the gallant colonel.

EXERCISE 7.

Write a short conversation—

- (1) Between two children about their favorite amusement.
- (2) Between a merchant and one of his customers.
- (3) Between a boy and a sailor.

MARKS USED IN CORRECTING WRITTEN WORK.

25. [The use of the following marks to indicate errors in written work may be illustrated on the blackboard. All but the caret should be repeated in the margin so as to attract attention. Where there is more than one mark, a line (✓) may be used to separate them.]

- c** under either a small letter or a capital. The other form should be used.
- X** a cross between two words. Begin a new sentence.
- /** this line drawn through a letter or mark means that it is wrong.
- δ** the dē-lē in the margin. Omit what is marked.
- Λ** the cā-rēt. Something is wanting, — a letter, a word, or a mark, which may be written in the margin.
- a circle around a mark in the margin. Use this mark.
- []** brackets enclosing words. These words should be omitted in copying.
- ¶ or No ¶** these signs mean begin or do not begin a new paragraph.
- s** under a word. The spelling is wrong.
- ww** these letters under a word. A wrong word has been used.
- gr** these letters in the margin. An error in grammar.
- ??** these marks in the margin. Inquire about this.

CHAPTER III.

COPYING AND DICTATION.

EXERCISE 8.

Copy one or more of the following selections or write from the dictation of your teacher, **using capitals and punctuation marks correctly.**

1. Capt. Nathan Hale was hanged as a spy during the Revolution. His last words were, "I only regret that I have but one life to give for my country."

2. Dr. Doddridge one day asked his little girl how it was that everybody loved her. "I do not know," she said, "unless it is that I love everybody."

3. "At Frankfort," said little Simson, "I once saw a watch that did not believe in the existence of a watch-maker. It had a very poor movement, by the way, and a pinchbeck case."

H. HEINE.

4. So nigh is grandeur to our dust,
 So near is God to man,
 When duty whispers low, "Thou must,"
 The youth replies, "I can."

EMERSON.

5. "Some people," says Alphonse Karr, "are always finding fault with Nature for putting thorns on roses. I always thank her for putting roses on thorns."

6. Queen Elizabeth, daughter of King Henry VIII., was born in 1533. She was five-and-twenty years of age when, Nov. 17, 1558, she rode through the streets of London, from the Tower to Westminster Abbey, to be crowned. She died at Richmond, March 24, 1603.

7. "How dismal you look!" said a Bucket to his companion, as they were going to the well.

"Ah!" replied the other, "I was reflecting on the uselessness of our being filled, for, let us go away never so full, we always come back empty."

"Dear me! how strange to look at it in that way!" said the Bucket. "Now, I enjoy the thought, that, however empty we come, we always go away full."

8. "Over and over again,
 No matter which way I turn,
 I always find in the book of life
 Some lesson I have to learn.
 I must take my turn at the mill;
 I must grind out the golden grain;
 I must work at my task with a resolute will,
 Over and over again."

9. William H. Prescott, John L. Motley, and George Bancroft are distinguished American historians. Prescott wrote "The Conquest of Mexico." Motley wrote "The Rise of the Dutch Republic." Bancroft wrote the "History of the United States."

10. "Know old Cambridge? Hope you do.
 Born there? Don't say so! I was too:
 Born in a house with a gambrel roof, —
 Standing still, if you must have proof."

"Yes, in the old gambrel-roofed house looking out on the College Green, lived Rev. Dr. Abiel Holmes, — pastor of the First Church in Cambridge, Massachusetts, but of wider fame as the author of the *American Annals*, — and there was born to him the son, Oliver Wendell, who was to shed new lustre on the family name as the brightest of American poets and essayists. His birth-date is August 29, 1809."

11. "Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, the most popular of American poets, was born in Portland, Maine, Feb. 27, 1807. His father was a well-known jurist, and, like Bryant, he was descended from John Alden, the youngest of the *Mayflower's* Pilgrims.

"From 1835, the time of his appointment as Professor of Modern Languages and Literature in Harvard University, till his death, March 24, 1882, Longfellow lived in the stately old Cambridge mansion occupied by Washington during the siege of Boston, 1775-76."

CHAPTER IV.

REPRODUCTION OF STORIES

EXERCISE 9.

Read and then **reproduce** from the outline the story of

THE OYSTER AND ITS CLAIMANTS

Two travellers discovered on the beach
An oyster, carried thither by the sea.
'Twas eyed with equal greediness by each;
Then came the question whose was it to be.
One, stooping down to pounce upon the prize,
Was thrust away before his hand could snatch it
"Not quite so quickly," his companion cries;
"If *you've* a claim here, *I've* a claim to match it;
The first that saw it has the better right
To its possession; come, you can't deny it."
"Well," said his friend, "my orbs are pretty bright,
And *I*, upon my life, was first to spy it "
"You? Not at all; or, if you *did* perceive it,
I *smelt* it long before it was in view;
But here's a lawyer coming — let us leave it
To him to arbitrate between the two."
The lawyer listens with a stolid face,
Arrives at his decision in a minute;
And, as the shortest way to end the case,
Opens the shell and eats the fish within it.
The rivals look upon him with dismay: —
"This Court," says he, "awards you each a shell;
You've neither of you any costs to pay,
And so be happy. Go in peace. Farewell!"

LA FONTAINE

OUTLINE.

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. The discovery. | 4. The lawyer and his fee |
| 2. The rival claims. | 5. The verdict rendered. |
| 3. The dispute. | 6. The lesson taught. |

EXERCISE 10.

Reproduce from the outline, after hearing or reading the story of

THE AFRICAN CHIEF.

W. C. Bryant

OUTLINE.

Introduction. Description of Captive. Appearance. History.

<i>Details of Story.</i>	{	Request for freedom. Offers ornaments.	
		The refusal and intention of captors.	
		Disclosure of gold concealed in hair.	
		Request renewed, and reasons given.	
		{	Again denied, but gold taken.

Conclusion. Effect on the Chieftain.

EXERCISE 11.

After hearing it read, write from the outline the story of

THE WHITE-FOOTED DEER.

W. C. Bryant.

1. The time and place. 2. Appearance of deer and her habits.
 3. The protection of the cottage dame. 4. Tradition of the Indians.
 5. The hunter's success. 6. His fatal shot. 7. The red-men's revenge.
 8. Desolation.

EXERCISE 12.

After reading it, write from this outline the story of

PAUL REVERE'S RIDE.

Longfellow.

1. The time. 2. The signal light. 3. The object of the ride.
 4. The listening friends discover the movements of the British.
 5. The impatient watching of Revere. 6. The signal at last! He
 mounts and is off! 7. The ride to Medford. 8. Lexington village
 its appearance. 9. The ride ended. 10. The result.

EXERCISE 13.

Study the poem carefully, and then **write the story** from the outline. Make several direct quotations.

NAUHAUGHT, THE DEACON.

Whittier.

1. Nauhaught and his circumstances. 2. His dream. 3. He visits his traps. 4. His success. 5. Thoughts of home and of his needs. 6. His prayer. 7. He finds the purse. 8. The conflict with temptation. 9. Reasons for keeping the money; for not keeping it. 10. The noble resolve. 11. He visits the inn and finds the owner. 12. The reward. 13. His feelings as he goes home. 14. The angel

EXERCISE 14.

Prepare an outline and reproduce the story from it.

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| 1. Bruce and the Spider. | <i>B. Barton.</i> ¹ |
| 2. Small Beginnings. | <i>C. Mackay.</i> ¹ |
| 3. The Milkmaid. | <i>J. Taylor.</i> ¹ |
| 4. The Mountain and the Squirrel. | <i>R. W. Emerson.</i> |
| 5. The Nantucket Skipper. | <i>J. T. Fields.</i> |
| 6. God's Judgment on the Wicked Bishop. | <i>R. Southey.</i> |
| 7. Incident of the French Camp. | <i>R. Browning.</i> |
| 8. Arnold Winkelried. | <i>Montgomery.</i> |
| 9. The Sandpiper. | <i>Celia Thaxter.</i> |
| 10. The Little Match Girl. | <i>Hans Christian Andersen.</i> |
| 11. Abou Ben Adhem. | <i>Leigh Hunt.</i> |
| 12. Horatius at the Bridge. | <i>Macaulay.</i> |
| 13. Skipper Ireson's Ride. | <i>J. G. Whittier.</i> |
| 14. The Story of Ruth. | <i>Bible.</i> |
| 15. The Legend of Bregenz. | <i>A. A. Proctor.</i> |

EXERCISE 15.

Try to invent and write an **original story**; give it a name, and sign yourself as the author.

¹ Bryant's *Library of Poetry and Song*.

CHAPTER V.

LETTER-WRITING.

26. The most general use of written language is for **Letters**, which we send addressed to absent persons to whom we have something to say.

27. Kinds. Letters may, of course, be written upon any subject. They may serve in transacting business; they may give or ask for information or advice; or they may take the place of ordinary conversation between friends and acquaintances. Sometimes they are *formal*; sometimes *familiar*.

28. Form. By custom a formal letter is made to consist of six parts:—

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. The Heading , | 4. The Body of the Letter , |
| 2. The Address , | 5. The Complimentary Ending , |
| 3. The Salutation , | 6. The Writer's Signature . |

I. THE HEADING.

29. The **Heading** of a letter should give the *place* and *date* of writing. If a reply is to be sent to the place of writing, the letter should show exactly where to send it by mail.

30. If a reply is to be sent elsewhere than to the place of writing the fact should be indicated after the signature. (Form 14.)

1. PLACE.

31. If in a city or in any other place where they need to be known, give first the name or number of the **house** and the name of the **street** (or else the post-office box). Thus: Turner's Inn, Green St.; or 25 Park Sq. (Forms, pp. 25-30.)

32. Always give the name of the **city, town, or post-office** where letters are received.

Often there are several post-offices in one township.

33. When it would be of any use to tell the **county**, give that next. It sometimes happens that in one state there are several towns with similar names, so that the name of the county is needed to distinguish them; and if a town is small and little known, it may hasten the delivery of the reply to add the county.

34. Next comes the name of the **state**, unless you are *sure* that it is not needed.

2. TIME.

35. In familiar letters, and whenever it needs to be known, give first the **day of the week**. (Forms 4 and 7.) In other letters, give only the **month, the day of the month, and the year**. Do not give the *hour* unless there is good reason for adding it. (Form 12.)

36. Sometimes it seems as if nothing need be given but the hour of the day, but if a letter is kept for any length of time, it is always convenient to be able to tell when and where it was written.

3. POSITION OF HEADING.

37. The heading may occupy *one, two, or three lines* according to the space it requires. It begins an inch or more from the top, and about half way across the page toward the right. Each of the following lines, if one is not enough, should begin a little farther to the right. Always put the whole of the date on one line.

4. HEADING OMITTED.

38. Except in business letters, the heading is often omitted, and the place and time are given at the left of the page after the signature. (§ 64, and Forms 12 and 22.)

5. PUNCTUATION.

39. Put commas after every part, except between the name and the day of the month, and between the name and the number of the street or post-office box. Put a period after abbreviations, and at the end of the whole.

EXERCISE 16.

1. Make perfect copies of the headings given on pages 25-30, in their proper position.

2. Write the following as headings properly arranged.

1. Oct. 25, 1901, Saratoga, State of New York, 217 Spring St.

2. I am in Andover, in Oxford Co., in Maine, at the Eagle Hotel, July 21, 1902.

3. At Home on Washington's Birthday, 1903, Thursday.

4. In the city of New York, Sept. 25, 1900, at the Murray Hill House, Saturday.

5. With a friend who lives at No. 294 in Duquesne St. in the city of Pittsburg, state of Pennsylvania, to-day.

6. In Worcester, Massachusetts, at the Polytechnic Institute, April 26, 1903.

7. Atlanta; 1 03; Georgia: (P. O. Box 725;) May 17.

8. Tennessee; Knox Co.; 1902; Fair Garden; 29th of November.

9. San Francisco; Aug. 16; Pacific Ave.; No. 216; 1901; California, Sunday. [Give the *time* as heading; the *place*, at the end.]

II. THE ADDRESS.

40. The Address of a letter consists of the name and title of the person or firm to whom it is written. Sometimes, especially in business letters, the residence or place of business is added.

41. The address is necessary in business letters where either the letter or the address is to be copied before mailing, and in any letter it may serve for reference (Forms 8, 21, 27); but to give it separately, in a familiar letter, seems useless and too formal.

1. NAME AND TITLE.

42. To the name of the person addressed it is polite to add an appropriate title.

(a) Before the name we may write:—

Mr. in addressing a man.

Mrs. [Mistress] in addressing a married woman.

Messrs. [Messieurs] in addressing two or more men.

Miss (pl. **Misses**) in addressing an unmarried woman or a girl.

Master (pl. **Masters**) in addressing a boy.

Rev. or **The Rev.** before the full name or some other title in addressing a clergyman; as, The Rev. C. F. Howe; Rev. Mr. Howe; The Rev. Dr. Howe; *not* Rev. Howe.

Hon. in addressing members of Congress, and a few other high officials.

Dr. in addressing a physician, or any person who has one of the titles M.D., Ph.D., D.D., LL.D., etc.

(b) After the name we may write:—

Esq. in addressing lawyers, many government officers, and sometimes other gentlemen.

(c) There are many other titles, such as Gen., Col., Supt., Jr., which may be used in addressing the persons to whom they rightfully belong.

(d) Sometimes two or more different titles are used together; as, Prof. Wm. Hale, M.D., LL.D.; but if both have the same meaning, as *Dr.* and *M.D.*, they cannot be used together. With *Esq.*, no other title should be used; and we cannot say *Mr. Dr. Brown*.

2. RESIDENCE.

43. By residence is meant the name of the post-office and state; sometimes also the street and number where a person receives letters. (Forms, pp. 26, 27.)

3. ARRANGEMENT AND POSITION.

44. The address may, like the heading, occupy one, two, or three lines. The first line should contain nothing but the name and title, and should not be indented from the left margin. Each of the fol-

lowing lines should be written a little further to the right than the one before it.

45. In *business letters* the address should be given on the line below the heading. In *familiar letters*, if given in full, it should begin on the line below the signature. In other letters it may be written at the end instead of at the top, especially when the *heading* is very long. (Form 17.)

46. Put commas after the parts of the address, but put a period at the end.

III. THE SALUTATION.

47. The **Salutation** is a courteous or affectionate greeting that serves to introduce the body of the letter.

1. FORM.

48. Its form depends upon who is writing, who is addressed, and what degree of intimacy or friendship there is between the two. Hence there are many forms from which to choose, and only a few can be given here. Where several forms are given in succession, the first are the most formal, the last are the most familiar.

49. In business or formal letters of any sort we write:— Sir (pl., Sirs or Gentlemen); Dear Sir or Sirs; My dear Sir. Madam (pl., Ladies); Dear Madam; My dear Madam.

A young unmarried woman is addressed simply as (for example) Miss Brown, or Dear Miss Brown. (Forms, pp. 25–30.)

50. In more familiar letters, we may use one of the preceding forms, or such as these:— Friend Brown; My dear Friend; Cousin Clara; Dear Brown; My dear Ned; My dear Mother; Dear Papa. (Forms, pp. 25–30.)

(a) The salutation is sometimes made part of the body of the letter (Form 13), and is sometimes omitted in formal notes. (Ex. 20, No. 20.)

2. POSITION.

51. If the address consists of three lines, the salutation may be indented as much as the second line. (Forms 21, 27.) If it con-

sists of one or two lines, the salutation should be written a little to the right. (Forms 8, 19.)

If the address is omitted here, the salutation should begin at the left margin of the line below the heading.

3. PUNCTUATION.

52. After the salutation, use a comma, a colon, a comma and a dash, or a colon and a dash, according to the degree of formality with which the letter begins. The comma is the least formal.

EXERCISE 17.

1 Study carefully the position, capitals, and punctuation of the introductions in the models on pages 25-30, and then make perfect copies of them.

2. Write the various addresses and salutations that you might use—

1. In writing to your father; your brother or sister; your uncle; your grandmother; your cousin.

2. In writing to an intimate friend; to your teacher; to a physician; to a neighbor.

3. In writing to a clergyman who is a stranger to you; to the chairman of your school committee; to the superintendent of schools.

4. In writing to a lawyer living in your town; to the member of Congress from your district; to some firm doing business near you.

5. In writing to a firm doing business at 723 Broadway, New York City, and named A. C. Armstrong & Co.; to the publishers of this book; to the publishers of the geography or of the reading-book that you use.

IV. THE BODY OF A LETTER.

53. The Body of a letter is the message itself, or what we have to say.

54. Contents. (a) Do not make such needless remarks as "I now take my pen in hand," or "I will now close," but begin with

something worth saying; express yourself clearly and concisely in complete sentences grouped into paragraphs according to the sense and stop when you have done. Use simple words, avoiding slang.

55. (b) The reply to a business letter should acknowledge its receipt, give its date, and refer to its contents. We may say, for example, "Your favor of the 28th ult., in answer to our inquiries, is at hand," etc.

56. Position, Form, etc. (a) The Body begins under the end of the introduction, or if that is long, on the same line with the salutation. There should be a narrow margin at the left extending the whole length of the page; we should *write legibly*, without crowding, and never divide a syllable at the end of a line.

57. (b) None but the most common abbreviations are to be used, and no figures except in connection with dates and large sums of money. The sign & is to be used only in the name of a firm.

[A letter is given as a model on p. 30.]

V. THE COMPLIMENTARY ENDING.

58. The **Complimentary Ending** is a courteous assurance of good faith, respect, or affection, which is added to the end of a letter. One should say something that is in keeping with the style of letter he has written, and with his relations to the person addressed; and he should at the same time express his feelings truthfully.

1. FORM.

59. (a) In business or formal letters the common forms are: Yours truly; Yours respectfully; (Very) truly yours; (Very) respectfully yours; and in extremely formal letters, such as are sometimes written to high officials, Form 17, or something similar, may be used. (Forms, pp. 25-30.)

60. (b) For friendly or familiar letters there is a great variety of other forms, some of which are given in the models. Other examples

are: Faithfully yours; With highest regards; Yours ever; Most truly yours; Yours sincerely; Your loving sister; Believe me to be your devoted son; Ever most gratefully yours. (Forms 3, 6, 14.)

"Yours, etc.," is vulgar.

2. POSITION.

61. The conclusion begins on the line following the body of the letter, and is indented about one-third the width of the page. If it is long, it should be arranged in two or three lines, like the heading and the address. (Forms, pp. 25-30.)

VI. THE SIGNATURE.

62. The **Signature** is the name of the person who writes or dictates the letter. When a person writes as an officer of any sort, he should add his official name (Form 9); and when he signs for another person, he should give both names. (Form 20.)

63. (a) The signature is to be written *distinctly* on the line following the complimentary ending, and indented about half the width of the page.

(b) In all business, formal, or extremely important letters, it should be written in full, and in every other letter when there might possibly be a doubt as to who sent it.

(c) A lady when writing to a stranger must sign her name, so as to show whether she is to be addressed as Miss or as Mrs. (Form 22.)

PLACE AND DATE, OR ADDRESS, AT THE END.

64. (a) When the place and date are not given as a heading, they are to be added in the same form at the left of the page, on the line below the signature. (Forms 12 and 22.) Or, —

(b) The *address* may be put here if omitted at the beginning. (Form 17.)

(c) The place to which a reply is to be sent should be given here, if it is not the same as the place of writing. (Form 14.)

EXERCISE 18.

1. **Copy** the closing forms from the models on pages 25-30 upon slate or paper ruled the *width* of a note or letter sheet.

2. Write the different forms of **conclusions** and **signature** that you might use —

1. In a formal letter to a stranger; to your employer; to a judge.

2. In a familiar letter to your mother; to a cousin; to an intimate friend; to your teacher, giving her address at the left.

3. In a business letter to a lawyer; to a dry goods firm; to the editor of a paper; to the mayor of a city, asking him to address you at some place named.

VII. FOLDING.

65. Fold a **letter-sheet** by turning up the lower edge to meet the upper evenly. Then fold twice the other way, — first the left edge, then the right, making the distance between the folds a little less than the width of an envelope.

66. Fold the lowest third of a **note-sheet** toward the top, then fold the upper end toward the bottom. If the paper is wider than the length of the envelope, fold it in the middle from the bottom to the top, and then from left to right. If the envelope is nearly square, fold the paper once in the middle.

VIII. THE SUPERScription, ETC.

67. The **Superscription**, or address upon the envelope, is chiefly for the benefit of post-office officials, and should be written so fully and so distinctly as not to hinder in any way the speedy delivery of the letter.

68. Contents. Besides the name and title with the post-office and state, there must be sometimes the street and number; sometimes the county; and sometimes the name of the person to whose care the letter is sent, — all arranged as shown in Forms 23-26.

69. Position. The superscription should generally be on the lower half of the envelope, and each successive line should begin a little further toward the right.

70. The **Punctuation** may be the same as that used in the letter, especially to indicate abbreviations and to separate two parts when written on the same line.¹

71. Return Address. The name and address of the sender are often placed in the upper left-hand corner, that the letter may be returned if not delivered. This is sometimes an important addition, as when it is not certain that the letter is rightly addressed, or when the full name of the writer is not given inside. (Form 25.)

72. The **stamp** should be evenly placed, right end up, about an eighth of an inch from the right-hand corner. Enclose a stamp to pay for sending the reply, when you think it only fair to do so.

EXERCISE 19.

Rule rectangles on slate or paper, making them 6 inches long by $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide, or the exact shape of some envelope, and **copy** the **models** on p. 29. Then write **envelope addresses** to the following:—

1. To your father, mother, brother, sister, or some classmate; to some clergyman of your acquaintance; to a friend, in care of his or her father, whose post-office box is numbered 47.

2. To a doctor of divinity named Gilbert Shaw, living in Cincinnati, at 24 Wilson Sq.

3. To Emmett, Kent & Co., a firm of lumber dealers, doing business in Clinton, Illinois. Clinton is in De Witt Co.

4. To the wife of John Alden, who lives in the capital of Ohio, at 91 Garfield Avenue.

5. To a firm composed of Miss Decker and Miss Fitz, whose millinery rooms are in Cumberland St., No. 201, Nashville, Tennessee.

¹ NOTE.— Punctuation is meant to be a help to the reader; and on envelopes where there is nothing but the address, and where the parts of that are already separate enough, the best usage is to omit terminal points as in the last two models.

73. Observe carefully the position, capitals, and punctuation of the parts of a letter as given in these forms.

[Form 1.]

Richmond, May 25, 1897.

[Form 2.]

Dear Father,

I am sure you will be glad

[Body of letter.]

to hear, etc.....

[Form 3.]

Your affectionate son,
Edward Bacon.

[Form 4.]

Lexington, Mass.,

Friday, April 19, 1901.

[Form 5.]

My Dear Emily:

What a delightful way
you have of reminding one,
etc.

[Form 6.]

Yours, as ever,
Alice.

[Form 7.]

19 Ray St., Macon, Ga.,

Tuesday, August 12, 1902.

[Form 8.]

Mrs. Emma Sanderson,

Dear Madam,—

Your inquiry of the 10th
instant concerning, etc.....

Yours truly,

[Form 9.]

William G. Ward,
City Clerk.

[Form 10.]

Dear Miss Brown:

In reply to your kind invitation
for Thursday next.....

[Form 11.]

Very truly yours,

Rebecca Foster.

[Form 12.]

"The Elms,"

Newbury, May 1, 1897.

2 o'clock.

[Form 13.]

500 Cleveland Ave.,

Chicago, June 5, 1897.

I must tell you, my dear
Mother, what a surprise, etc.

[Form 14.]

Ever, my dear Mother,

Your loving daughter,

Grace Nelson.

Please direct to

Meadville, Penn.

[Form 15.]

Continental Hotel,

Washington, D.C.,

[Form 16.]

My dear Sir:—

July 4, 1897.

Inquiries at the Treasury
Department, etc.

[Form 17.]

I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

William Reynolds.

Hon. Wm. M. Evarts,
Windsor, Vt.

(P.O. Box 1925.)

[Form 18.]

St. Louis, Mo.,

[Form 19.]

Dec. 29, 1897.

Messrs, James Monroe & Co.,
Syracuse, N. Y.

Dear Sirs:—Enclosed
please find a draft, etc.,.....

[Form 20.]

Yours respectfully,

A. G. Lane & Co.

By John Cole.

[Form 21.]

Rev. Henry F. Harrington,

Supt. of Public Schools,

New Bedford, Mass.

My Dear Sir:—Will you
kindly inform me, etc.,.....

[Form 22.]

Respectfully yours,

(Miss) Emily A. Jenkins.

Winchester, Ind.,

Aug. 4, 1897.

FORMS OF SUPERScription.

<p>[23.]</p> <p>Stamp.</p> <p>Mr. James O. Hunt, Atlanta, Georgia. 19 Spring St.</p>	<p>[24.]</p> <p>Stamp.</p> <p>Messrs. A. J. Grant & Co., Pittsburg, Penn. Box 193.</p>
<p>RETURN TO THE CENTURY CO. NEW YORK.</p> <p>[25.]</p> <p>Stamp.</p> <p>Mrs. Geo. W. Emerson Franklin Morgan Co. Illinois</p>	<p>[26.]</p> <p>Stamp.</p> <p>Miss Laura J. Bacon Care of C. G. Hale, Esq. 26 Lincoln Ave. St. Louis, Mo.</p>

[Form 27.]

194 Warren St., Manchester, N.H.,

June 29, 1902.

Mr. Edward O. Spinner,
Supt. of the Atlantic Mills,
Lawrence, Mass.

Dear Sir:—I wish to apply for the position advertised in the "Sun."

I am thirteen years old, and have just graduated from the Adams School. I am well and strong, and not afraid of work, and shall try to be faithful to my employer.

I can bring a recommendation from my teacher, Mr. Ford, and another from the gentleman for whom I worked during my last summer vacation.

Yours very respectfully,

Harry J. Edmunds.

[To the Teacher. Informal invitations may follow one of the preceding letter-forms. Formal invitations and replies are written in the third person upon note paper or cards. They are dated at the bottom, and no signature is added. The following models may be used.]

FORMAL INVITATION.

Miss Ruth Fielding requests the pleasure of Miss Helen Thayer's company on Tuesday evening, May 15th, at 8 o'clock.

14 Park Avenue.

INVITATION ACCEPTED.

Miss Helen Thayer accepts with pleasure Miss Fielding's invitation for Tuesday evening next.

121 Concord Square, May 10th.

INVITATION NOT ACCEPTED.

Miss Alice Winslow regrets that the serious illness of her mother prevents her acceptance of Miss Fielding's kind invitation for Tuesday evening, May 15th.

Fairview, Saturday.

EXERCISE 20.

Upon a properly shaped page, **write** the very best **letter** you can, whether long or short, and whatever the subject. Refer constantly to preceding forms and directions.

1. Your father wishes you to bring your copy-book home that he may see your improvement in penmanship. Write a letter to your teacher, asking permission to do this. You may say which book you mean, when you would like to take it, or how your father came to ask about your writing. (Use Forms 1, 10, 11.)

2. Your teacher thinks you have been rather careless in your writing, and wishes your father to wait until the close of the term before examining the book. Write to your father a letter explaining the matter fully. (Use Forms 1, 2, 3.)

3. A friend of yours, named —, has invited you to drive next Saturday afternoon. Write to your mother, who is in an adjoining town, asking leave to go, and telling her all you know about how many are going, where you are to go, and how late you are to stay. (Follow Forms 7, 2, 3.)

4. Your mother has a plan to receive company at that time, and wishes you to be at home. Write to your friend about the matter, expressing your thanks and regrets. (Use Forms 7, 5, 6.)

5. Miss Elsie White, of 13 Franklin St., Hartford, has received a Maltese kitten by express from her friend Mary Ford, who lives in Newington. She is much pleased, and writes a letter acknowledging the gift and mentioning some traits that she has discovered in her new pet. Write Elsie's letter. (Select from Forms 4 and 7, 5, 10, and 13.)

6. Master Harry W. Smith has just received by mail from his uncle Henry a copy of Dickens's "A Child's History of England" as a birthday present. He writes to his uncle, acknowledging the receipt of the book, and expressing his thanks. The boy lives in Rutland, Vt., and has always been fond of stories and of history. Write his letter. (Look at Forms 4 and 13, 2 and 8, 3, 11, before you decide what to use.)

7. Write to Messrs. Geo. Beck & Sons, Rochester, N.Y., asking them to send you six varieties of flower seeds, which you may name in a column, with the price of each set opposite. Write as if you enclosed a postal order for fifty cents. (Select what you think appropriate forms.)

8. Write to the postmaster in your city or town to ask the cost of sending books through the mail. Before writing, decide exactly what you mean to ask. (Compare Forms 13 and 18, 21, 11, 9, 20.)

9. Write the answer that, as an officer of the Government, he sends you. (Select parts of Forms 8, 9, 17.)

10. Write to a friend asking to borrow a certain book, and offering to send in return one which you name. Tell why you want the one, and why you recommend the other.

11. Write his reply. He explains when you can have the book, and why not at once. (Try Form 12.)

12. Write to the chairman of the School Committee inviting him to be present at exercises to be held in your school on Washington's birthday. State the time, and tell what is to be expected. (Use Forms 21, 26.)

13. Monroe & Henry are expressmen doing business at 147 Spruce St. Write them to call for your trunk in time for a certain train which you wish to take at the nearest railroad station. Be very definite.¹

14. Alice Harrison Doe invites her cousin, Mary Sands, to spend the holidays with her, and tells some of her plans for Christmas day and the week following. Alice lives at the Armington Home, Philadelphia, and her cousin at 213 Murray Ave., Harrisburg. Refer to a previous visit. (Use Forms 15, 12.)

15. Miss Mary's mother is ill, and she is unable to come. Write the reply in which she tells what she is busy about.

16. Having broken a neighbor's window while playing ball, you write an apology, and tell what arrangements you will make for repairing the damage, if the gentleman does not object. (Use Forms 7, 8, 11.)

¹ The teacher may give directions for writing this in the third person.

17. Write to the publishers of this book, asking to have a copy of it sent to some person who lives in a neighboring town, and who has asked you to buy a copy for him. Write as if you were to enclose payment. (Use Forms 15, 21.)

18. Suppose you have trouble with your eyes or head, and wish to drop one of your studies for a time. Write to some member of the School Board or to the Superintendent, making the request, giving your reasons, and referring to a physician. (Use Forms 21, 27.)

19. Samuel Underhill, who lives in Park Square, Troy, N.Y., encloses two dollars to D. Lothrop & Co., Publishers of *Wide Awake*, Boston, Mass., as the subscription price of that magazine for a year. Write his letter.

20. Write to Wm. Constable & Co., asking that some samples of dress goods be sent to your mother's address. Give them some idea of the kind wanted. They do business in Broadway, New York City.¹

21. Mrs. Betsey Trotwood, who lives in Syracuse, N.Y., at 95 Herkimer St., has received a tub of butter from Ralph Lane, a farmer living in Jamesville, N.Y. It was sent with the understanding that it might be exchanged. It is not satisfactory, and Mrs. T. writes accordingly. Reproduce her letter. (Use Form 19.)

22. Write to D. Appleton & Co., New York, asking them to send you by express, C.O.D., four books, or sets of books, which you are to name. Give them an idea of the style of binding you prefer.

23. Write to some clergyman whom you know, asking him for a letter of introduction and recommendation to a gentleman of whom you expect to seek employment in another city.

24. Thomas Bond, Secretary of the "Alert" Base Ball Club, Clinton, writes a challenge, addressed to Frank Merriman, Secretary of the "Stars" of Fairview, for a series of three match games, beginning next Saturday afternoon.

Merriman replies, accepting the challenge, and proposing a time and place for a meeting to arrange details. Write both letters. (See Forms 21 and 9.)

¹ May be written in the third person, without the writer's name.

25. Dr. Thomas F. Snow lives in Revere St., Boston, at number 96. He wishes to purchase a residence in one of the suburbs, costing not over \$5,000. He writes to Geo. H. Chapin & Co., Real Estate Agents, Herald Building, Boston, telling them what he wants, and asking them to communicate with him. Write his letter. (Use Forms 13, 21, 11.)

26. They reply to Mr. Snow, describing two places they have for sale,—one in Arlington, and the other in Melrose. They give him an idea of the size of each house, of the location, price, terms of payment, etc., and invite him to call and see them. Write their letter. (Use Forms 7, 14, 20.)

27. FOR SALE. A farm of thirty-five acres, all under cultivation. Price reasonable, and terms easy. For full particulars, address LEMUEL MASON, Sharon, Mass.

Edward Poorman answers this advertisement. His address is P.O. Box 315, Providence, R.I. Write his letter.

28. Mr. Mason replies, giving a full description of the farm, stating price, reasons for selling, and other facts which a purchaser might wish to know. Write his letter.

29. Write to your grocer to send you "on account" a definite quantity of four kinds of groceries. You may complain of the quality of the last oil he sent you, and explain how it burns. You will try a different brand.

30. TO LET. A small house, in a pleasant, retired situation. For particulars, address JOS. B. ARNOLD, P.O. Box 1492, Chicago, Ill.

Dr. Allan Downs, who lives at 396 Madison St. in the same city, answers this advertisement, asking information. Write his letter.

31. Mr. Arnold replies, describing the house and giving its location, price of rent, etc. Write his letter.

32. As clerk for Bond Brothers, dealers in hay and grain, 94 Portland St., Lowell, Mass., write to the Freight Agent of the B. & M. R.R., Portland, Me., inquiring about the delay in the shipment of three carloads of hay consigned to your firm on a certain date.

33. WANTED. A boy in a hardware store to learn the business. Must be honest, willing to work, and ready to give up the use of

tobacco if desired. Address, stating age, residence, qualifications, and references, FRANK PURINGTON & Co., 294 Hudson St., Albany, N.Y.

Guy Wheeler, who lives in Cohoes, N.Y., answers this advertisement. Write his letter.

34. Write to a classmate, telling what magazine you see each month, and what there is in it that especially interests you.

35. Write to your mother, telling, in a merry, sprightly way, how you pass your time in school on days you like the best.

36. Write to your sister, telling her about a day when everything went wrong with you, and whether it was your own fault or not.

37. Write to a schoolmate, telling what your plans are for your future life after leaving school.

EXERCISE 21.

IMAGINATIVE LETTERS.

In writing the following, the heading and the address may be omitted.

1. Two books have long stood side by side in a store. One of them is at last sold, and writes a letter to the other. Imagine how a book would feel to be bought by a boy, or a beautiful young lady, or an old gentleman with a large library, and what experiences it might have to tell.

2. Write what the book that was left might reply about missing its companion, about those that have visited the store, and about its prospects of being sold.

3. A doll that has been neglected for a new and prettier one writes a letter to its little mistress.

4. A little bird that has been left in charge of a friend while its mistress is absent, writes to its mistress a letter.

5. Write the message of an overworked stage-horse to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.

6. What would a robin say to the boy who killed its mate and robbed its nest?

CHAPTER VI.

NARRATIVE-WRITING.

I. NARRATIVES OF PERSONAL EXPERIENCE.

74. An orderly and connected account of what has sometime taken place may be called a **Narrative**.

EXERCISE 22.

Narrate your **experience with some pet animal**, — a dog, a cat, a horse, a bird, or rabbits, etc. Observe this order, and make a connected whole:—

1. What pet; kind or breed, name. 2. Size, color, age, value. 3. How and when obtained. 4. When or where kept. 5. Food; what, how often, by whom. 6. Habits, day and night. 7. Friends and enemies, or likes and dislikes. 8. Intelligence; tricks, anecdotes. 9. What became of it, how much affection you have for it, or why it was worth petting.

EXERCISE 23.

Observe carefully the **events** of a **day** or **half-day** in your school, making notes of what happens if need be. Next day narrate these events in the form of a letter to your uncle or aunt, following the order in which they occurred.

Say most about what is most important, but omit nothing that is needed to make the account complete. Try to make it clear and interesting.

Mail this letter if your teacher approves and thinks it is well enough written.

75. Directions. In writing a narrative of any kind, —

1. Do not begin a sentence until you have thought it through and know just how it is to end.

2. Keep the order in which the events occurred, unless you have a good reason for following some other method.

3. Mention every point that is needed to give the reader a clear idea of what happened.

4. Say most about what is most important or interesting, and omit useless details.

5. Make the narrative a connected whole, but do not string sentences together with "ands."

6. Write naturally, as you would talk, and use no words whose meaning you do not know.

7. Punctuate carefully as you write.

EXERCISE 24.

Tell how you spent your last pleasant **holiday**. The following outline may help you.

1. Your subject. 2. Pleasant expectations; what preparation made; what hoped for. 3. The night before. 4. The morning; first occupation; plans for the day; company. 5. The afternoon; where; with whom. 6. The dinner. 7. The evening; all details. 8. Feelings; surprises; disappointments; enjoyment.

EXERCISE 25.

Each of the following may be the subject of a narrative about your **personal experiences**. Begin by making an outline similar to those provided in previous exercises.

1. The Fourth of July. 2. Christmas. 3. A Saturday Afternoon. 4. A Day in the Country. 5. An Evening at the Fair. 6. A Shopping Expedition. 7. A Visit to the Museum. 8. How I helped on the Farm. 9. A Day at the Seaside. 10. The Surprise Party. 11. A Base-ball Match. 12. The Toboggan Slide. 13. A Candy-pull. 14. A Day in the Kitchen. 15. A Journey. 16. A Rainy Day.

EXERCISE 26.

Under the direction of your teacher, visit with a companion some one of the following in the neighborhood of your school. Then make an outline, and **write an account of your visit.**

A Cotton Mill.	The Telephone Exchange.
A Shoe Factory.	The Ship Yard.
A Grist Mill.	A Newspaper Press Room.
The Custom House.	A Cemetery.
A Machine Shop.	The Old Fort.
A Bookbinder's.	The Lighthouse.
The Poor House.	The Falls.
The County Jail.	A Brick Yard.
The Old Mill.	A Woodland Road.

EXERCISE 27.

1. What is a **biography**?

2. Write a biography of your father.

3. What is an **autobiography**? Write one, using these suggestions:—

Your name—birthplace and date—names and occupation of parents—place of residence—schools attended—different studies—out-of-school lessons, such as music or dancing—other occupation or pursuits—habits of rising—work to do—fondness for work—sports—books read—kind of reading preferred—friends—plans for future education—for business—object in life—natural disposition—is it best to be noble or rich or good or wise.

76. In collecting materials this may serve as an

OUTLINE FOR A BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.

I. **Introduction.** Name, and how best known.

II. **Birth.** Time, place, and—generally—ancestry.

III. **Childhood and Youth.** Education; preparation and training for life-work; early pursuits, habits, dispositions.

IV. **Chief Events of Life**, public and private, in their order.

V. **Death**. Time, place, circumstances.

VI. **Characteristics**. Personal appearance and bearing; mental and moral qualities; likes and dislikes, ability and culture.

VII. **Results of Life**. Development of self; example to others; service to individuals, to the country, to the world.

77. Outline and notes for a sketch of the life of

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

I. *Introduction*. Sixteenth Pres. of U. S. during Civil War. Savior of country.

II. *Birth*. Ky., Feb. 12, 1809. Ancestors from England with Wm. Penn. Father could neither read nor write. Mother a remarkable woman.

III. *Childhood and Youth*. Had but a few months' schooling. Toiled all day on farm, read by light of log-fire at night. *The Bible*, *Pilgrim's Progress*, *Æsop's Fables* his favorites. Borrowed law-books at night to study, returned them in the morning.

IV. *The Chief Events of Life*. In 1816 his father moved to Indiana. At 11, he met a great loss in death of mother. At 19, on a flatboat to New Orleans. At 21, moved to Illinois, helped build log-cabin, split 3000 rails for fence. Then successively clerk, captain in Black Hawk war, bookkeeper, postmaster, surveyor, and lawyer. At 25, in Legislature. Home in Springfield. Married in 1842. In Congress, 1846. Candidate for U. S. Senator in 1858. Defeated. President, 1861 till death. Condition of country and conduct of war a great anxiety and responsibility. Emancipated slaves, 1863.

V. *Death*. Assassinated April 14, 1865. Mourned at home and abroad.

VI. *Characteristics*. Tall, awkward, ungainly. Common sense, honesty, fidelity, kindness, patriotism. "Plain man of the people." One of the great men of history.

VII. *Results of Life*. Wise conduct of great war. Saved the Union. Freed the slaves. Remembered with affection and gratitude. Next to Washington.

EXERCISE 28.

Make a study of the **Life of Lincoln** as you find it given in books, and then write a biographical sketch. Use the preceding notes, and follow the directions given in § 75.

EXERCISE 29.

Prepare notes according to the plan given, and **write sketches** of one or more of these

STATESMEN AND INVENTORS.

George Washington.
Benjamin Franklin.
Alexander Hamilton.
Thomas Jefferson.
Andrew Jackson.
Daniel Webster.
Henry Clay.
Ulysses S. Grant.

Robert Fulton.
Eli Whitney.
James Watt.
George Stephenson.
S. F. B. Morse.
Charles Goodyear.
Richard Arkwright.
Thomas A. Edison.

EXERCISE 30.

Write a sketch of the **Life of Longfellow**, using any facts that you can remember from your reading. Those suggested here will not be enough.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, the best beloved of American poets — Feb. 27, 1807, Portland, Me. — Bowdoin College at 14, graduated at 18 — chosen Professor of Modern Languages at Harvard at 28 — his home, a house occupied by Washington in 1775–76. — Charles Kingsley said of his face that it was the most beautiful he had ever seen. — Poems noted for sweetness and purity — His courteous, pure, beautiful life the best poem of all — Died March 24, 1882 — The inheritance of his writings.

EXERCISE 31.

Prepare outline notes as in § 77, and **write a sketch** of the life of one or more of these

AUTHORS.

William Shakespeare.
Sir Walter Scott.
Washington Irving.
William Cullen Bryant.

Ralph Waldo Emerson.
James Russell Lowell.
John Greenleaf Whittier.
Oliver Wendell Holmes.

EXERCISE 32.

Study the life of **Joan of Arc** until you can write something more than is given in these notes.

Born 1412 — daughter of a peasant — could spin and sew, not read nor write — strong, beautiful, poetic, fond of adventure, of great piety. At 16 understood cause of war between France and England — resolved to deliver France. Friendless — poor — trained to horseback riding. Laughed at by the great — believed in by the common people. Persistent — approved by King — led many to battle — won victory. Accused of heresy — burned at stake.

EXERCISE 33.

After studying and comparing the lives of two persons prominent in history, **make an outline** and **write a sketch** of each life. Then write a comparison of their likenesses and differences. You may select from the following:—

Queen Elizabeth.
Mary Queen of Scots.
Victoria.
Alfred the Great.
Peter the Great.

Sir Walter Raleigh.
William E. Gladstone.
George Peabody.
Napoleon Bonaparte.
David Livingstone.

III. HISTORICAL SKETCHES.

78. Historical events are incidents in the life of a people or nation. They are parts of the story of the life of mankind; and the doings of the chief actors make up so large a part of history that a record of events is often little more than a sketch of the life of some prominent man.

Thus, a biographical sketch of Columbus necessarily includes a narrative of the "Discovery of a New World," and to tell of the "Conquest of Mexico" is to sketch the life of its conqueror, Hernando Cortez.

EXERCISE 34.

Prepare the outline and notes, and write a sketch of one of the following, so as to show the part he played in history.

Christopher Columbus.	Hernando Cortez.
Ferdinand de Soto.	Francisco Pizarro.
Henry Hudson.	Benedict Arnold.
William Penn.	Tecumseh.

79. Generally something like the following will serve best as an

OUTLINE FOR A HISTORICAL SKETCH.

- I. **Introduction.** The subject: why interesting or important.
- II. **Cause or Purpose.** What led to the event.
- III. **Time and Place.**
- IV. **Principal Actors,** and their relations to one another.
- V. **Details,** given in natural order.
- VI. **Effect** produced at the time.
- VII. **Conclusion.** Thoughts or reflections on the event as a whole.
Influence on the nation's life or future history.

(a) The writing of a good historical sketch, or, for that matter, of anything else, requires a clear knowledge of the subject, which must come from reading, study, and conversation. Note-taking is often helpful.

80. Outline and notes for a sketch of

BURGOYNE'S INVASION.

I. *Introduction.* Important event of Revolution. Its influence on the result.

II. *Object.* Plan to divide the country. Clinton going north from New York City, Burgoyne going south to meet him.

III. *Time, Place.* June-Oct., 1777. Canada; N.Y.; Vt.

IV. *Principal Actors.* Burgoyne, St. Leger, Baum; Schuyler, Gates, Stark. Duty of each.

V. *Details.* Route *via* Lake Champlain and the Hudson; 8000 men; English; Hessians; Indian allies. Expedition of St. Leger to Ft. Schuyler *via* St. Lawrence and Oswego (Oriskany), and of Col. Baum to Bennington. Both defeated. Capture of Fts. Ticonderoga, Crown Point, Edward. Two battles at Saratoga. Lost. Defeat; no retreat; no provisions. Surrender of army, Oct. 17, 6000 men.

VI. *Effect.* Americans encouraged. France acknowledged independence.

VII. *Conclusion.* Victory timely, as it followed defeats. Greatest influence in ending the war.

EXERCISE 35.

Prepare the outlines and write a **historical sketch** on "Burgoyne's Invasion" or on one of these subjects:—

The Discovery of America.	The Siege of Yorktown.
The Landing of the Pilgrims.	Battle of Lake Erie.
King Philip's War.	The Burning of the Capitol.
The Exile of the Acadians.	The Firing on Sumter.
The Battle of Quebec.	Battle of Gettysburg.
The Boston Tea-party.	The Death of Lincoln.
Battle of Lexington.	The Mexican War.
Battle of Bunker Hill.	The First Voyage of Columbus.
Declaration of Independence.	An Incident of the Revolution.
Arnold's Treason.	Our National Flag.

EXERCISE 36.

Write a little **history** of the **State** in which you live. Tell when it was settled, and for what purpose. The events of the first years. The wars and important changes. Its growth in population, commerce, manufactures, etc.

EXERCISE 37.

Prepare an outline, and write a **brief history** of

Your native town.	New Orleans.	California
The city in which you live.	Cuba.	Florida.
The city of Washington.	Chicago.	Texas.

CHAPTER VII.

DESCRIPTIVE WRITING.

81. In narratives about persons, we relate actions performed by them from time to time, and describe the circumstances in which they were placed. A narrative, then, is made up of short or long *descriptions* of deeds, persons, places, and things; and it is in the writing of **Descriptions** that we are to have special practice now.

EXERCISE 38.

Use each word appropriately in describing some object as to **size**, **weight**, or **height**. Thus:—

“An *extensive* plain; a *towering* cliff.”

large	light	gigantic	wide	puny
tiny	elevated	capacious	minute	extensive
thick	microscopic	vast	dwarfed	little
shallow	spacious	broad	delicate	deep
boundless	big	narrow	small	slight
great	thin	huge	high	lofty

EXERCISE 39.

Explain the **direction** of lines that are—

straight	wavy	vertical	radiating	perpendicular
curved	spiral	horizontal	convergent	zigzag
diagonal	slanting	parallel	oblique	intersecting

EXERCISE 40.

Explain the **form** of objects that are—

square	elliptical	cylindrical	plane	annular
rectangular	oval	conical	corrugated	tapering

oblong	convex	cubical	arched	slender
hexagonal	concave	prismatic	similar	pointed
octagonal	spherical	pyramidal	gibbous	stellated

EXERCISE 41.

Find one or more words that **describe the form** of—

vases	pipes	pencils	chimneys	horns
masts	stars	spokes	roads	leaves
eggs	needles	trunks	sheets	rainbows
coins	saws	lawns	barrels	saucers

EXERCISE 42.

Describe the following as to **form**, referring to Exercise 40 if you cannot think of the proper word. Thus:—

"A tin cup" has a *circular* base, with a *hollow, cylindrical* body. On its side is a *flat, curved* handle.

a broom	a pin	a table-knife	a flute	a hoe
a slate	a river	a scythe	a chair	a bench
a lead-pencil	a spoon	a bell	a door	a bottle

EXERCISE 43.

1. Use one or more of the words in the first list to **describe** each object named in the second list. Give the color when you can. Thus:—

"Chalk" is white, opaque, porous, and brittle.

WORDS THAT IMPLY QUALITIES.

transparent	lustrous	translucent	indelible	jointed
opaque	friable	fluid	sticky	plastic
porous	volatile	downy	fleecy	flexible
combustible	soluble	granular	slippery	fibrous
inflammable	elastic	smooth	brittle	gaseous

WORDS THAT NAME OBJECTS.

chalk	rubber	leather	paper	clay
sponge	molasses	bread	wood	milk
glass	flax	cotton	cement	steam

iron	gold	ice	coal	oil
sugar	wax	alcohol	kerosene	putty

EXERCISE 44.

Use one or more of the words in the *first* list in describing each object named in the *second* list.

IMPLYING QUALITIES.

sweet	spicy	odorous	tart	refreshing
acid	pungent	sour	insipid	juicy
bitter	astrigent	aromatic	tasteless	crisp
palatable	fragrant	nutritious	edible	appetizing

NAMING OBJECTS.

ginger	alum	onions	water	melons
lemons	butter	coffee	vinegar	radishes
cloves	camphor	mustard	cologne	nuts
wine	beets	gravy	mint	fruits

EXERCISE 45.

Of what **materials** are the following made?—

cloth	chimneys	roofs	monuments	ropes
books	spoons	pitchers	pipes	images
rings	dimes	fences	tubes	mortar
pencils	ink	buttons	dice	paste

EXERCISE 46.

1. Name the **parts** of objects mentioned in Exercises 41 and 42.

2. Explain **what part** is indicated by each of these words:—

edge	spire	apex	knee	interior
slope	trunk	margin	crown	corner
branch	core	twig	base	calyx
root	crest	summit	gable	exterior
bark	arm	handle	petal	stalk
ridge	eaves	centre	pinnacle	bottom

3. Select all the words that might be used in describing — a *tree* — a *flower*; — a *house*.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

82. A description should be so written as to produce a clear picture in the mind of the reader.

Observe carefully these **directions** : —

1. Learn all you can about what you are to describe :
(*a*) By observation ; (*b*) By experiment ; (*c*) By reading and study ; (*d*) By inquiry.

2. Do not try to write a description of an object unless you can see it or remember it distinctly.

3. After having gathered the material for your description, arrange it in order according to one of the plans or outlines given.

4. Think every sentence carefully through before beginning to write it. Arrange what you say in separate paragraphs, according as it pertains to one or another branch of your subject.

5. Use no word or expression of which the meaning or the application is not clear to you.

6. Learn to select words that *exactly* describe the quality to which you wish to refer. Do not be too proud nor too lazy to use a dictionary.

7. Avoid in all your language, whether spoken or written, every *slang* expression, — not only because slang is vulgar, but also because it is a great hindrance to the growth of one's vocabulary.

8. Remember that you cannot become an easy and graceful writer or speaker without careful and constant practice, and do not be satisfied with the schoolroom exercises, if you have time to prepare additional papers to be shown to your teacher for criticism and correction.

I. DEFINITION-MAKING.

EXERCISE 47.

Define each of these objects *that you can see or remember clearly*, giving a short description of it that will distinguish it from everything else. Follow this plan as far as it will apply, giving —

1. Use. 2. Form. 3. Size. 4. Material. 5. Structure.

Thus:—

“What is a window?” This window is an opening in the wall of a dwelling-house for the admission of light and air. It is oblong in shape, and about six feet long by three feet wide. It is closed by two wooden sashes, each containing two panes of glass. The sashes are made to slide up and down, and they may be fastened by a catch attached to either sash.

a door	a brush	a newspaper	a railroad
a chimney	a table	a hammer	a wheelbarrow
a bottle	a scythe	a saw	a thermometer
a pencil	a star	a saw-horse	a buggy
a pen	a banjo	a carpet	a flower
a boat	a basket	a guide-post	a trunk
a pitcher	a hut	a clock	a safe
a rake	a boat	a watch	a nest
a pail	a stove	a piano	a barometer
a tent	a fence	a bridge	an engine

II. COMPARISON AND CONTRAST.

83. In describing an object it is often a help to **compare** or **contrast** it with something better known, — showing how the two agree or differ in appearance, structure, qualities, use, value, and so on.

EXERCISE 48.

Compare the following with respect to (a) **Form**, (b) **Parts** or **Structure**, (c) **Use**.

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| 1. A pin and a needle. | 8. A fence and a wall. |
| 2. A spoon and a fork. | 9. A watch and a clock. |
| 3. A shovel and a pickaxe. | 10. A leaf and a flower. |
| 4. A chair and a bed. | 11. A bolt and a lock. |
| 5. A pail and a box. | 12. A pocket and a purse. |
| 6. A sled and a boat. | 13. A fireplace and a stove. |
| 7. A cottage and a palace. | 14. A thermometer and a barom-
eter. |

EXERCISE 49.

Compare the following as to their (a) **Appearance**, (b) **Qualities**, (c) **Use**, (d) **Value**.

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Coal and wood. | 7. Butter and cheese. |
| 2. Gold and iron. | 8. Cotton and wool. |
| 3. Wheat and tobacco. | 9. Leather and rubber. |
| 4. Cinnamon and cork. | 10. Oil and milk. |
| 5. Water and wine. | 11. Silk and flax. |
| 6. Pine and mahogany. | 12. Flour and honey. |

EXERCISE 50.

Compare the following with respect to their (a) **Size**, (b) **Parts**, (c) **Habits**, (d) **Value**.

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Horse and cow. | 5. Wolf and lamb. |
| 2. Hen and duck. | 6. Fly and spider. |
| 3. Cat and dog. | 7. Frog and turtle. |
| 4. Horse and camel. | 8. Butterfly and humming-bird. |

EXERCISE 51.

Compare the following, showing, in an orderly way, points of **likeness** and of **difference**.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Two of your classmates. | 7. Lawn-tennis and base-ball. |
| 2. Summer and winter. | 8. City life and country life. |
| 3. A church and a jail. | 9. Travel by stage, by steamboat,
and by railroad. |
| 4. A doctor and a clergyman. | 10. The advantages of wealth and
of education. |
| 5. A farmer and a miner. | |
| 6. Boys' sports and girls' sports. | |

III. GENERAL DESCRIPTIONS.

EXERCISE 52.

Write as if for a friend who is at a distance and has never visited you, a clear and vivid **description** of your *schoolhouse* and *schoolroom*.

1. Describe the *building*: (*a*) its location; whether pleasant, convenient, and so on. (*b*) Its surroundings; yard, trees, etc. (*c*) Its age, size, shape, material; architecture, whether plain or ornamental. (*d*) The entrances, stairways, corridors, arrangement of rooms, dressing-rooms, etc.

2. Describe your *room*: (*a*) in what part of the building. (*b*) Size, shape; doors, windows. (*c*) Furniture; seats, number, arrangement. (*d*) Walls, blackboards, maps, ornaments. (*e*) Such improvements as you can suggest.

EXERCISE 53.

In the same general way **describe** —

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| 1. The church you attend. | 8. The largest public building in town. |
| 2. The house you live in. | 9. A railway car. |
| 3. Your sitting-room. | 10. A children's play-room. |
| 4. Your grandfather's home. | 11. A farmer's kitchen. |
| 5. A mill. | 12. A country store. |
| 6. The nearest railroad station. | 13. An old garret. |
| 7. A blacksmith's shop. | |

EXERCISE 54.

1. Describe your **Desk** at school. Tell its form, materials, and arrangement of parts. Compare it with the old-fashioned desk you have heard your father tell about. Why do you like or dislike it? Imagine what people have sat there before you, and tell what some of them may be doing. Think how you will look back upon it in years to come.

2. Describe an **Old-fashioned Chair**.

EXERCISE 55.

Take for your subject —

1. **My Garden**. Tell its situation; its form and size; how enclosed;

how the beds are arranged; what they contain; just how you have managed it this year; what you expect to gather or to raise; what you can find in it to interest you if you will.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 2. What I see from my Piazza. | 4. The View from a Hill-top. |
| 3. What I see on my Way to School. | 5. An Hour in the Woods. |

IV. GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTIONS.

84. The description of countries, cities, rivers, mountains, and of other natural or political divisions requires careful observation and inquiry as well as reading and study. The order in which such subjects may be treated is shown by the following

OUTLINES.

I. *A City or Town.*

I. Situation. County and state, or the like; on or in sight of what shore, river, lake, mountain, railroad, or important city, — giving distance and direction.

II. Size. Area and population, compared with some other city or town. Variety of inhabitants.

III. Streets and Roads: quality and direction. Principal means of approach and transportation.

IV. Buildings and Public Works: number and character. Library, post-office, court-house, churches, school-houses, park, bridges, monuments, etc. If a place of note, — the reason.

V. Leading Industry. Manufactures — what kind. Commerce — with what places. Agriculture — what products.

VI. Surroundings. Character of the suburbs; natural scenery; places of historic interest.

VII. History. Brief mention of specially interesting events, of remarkable growth and prosperity, or of disasters.

II. *A Country or State.*

I. **Situation:** in reference to the whole region; to other states, etc.

II. **Size.** Area, or length and breadth, as shown by comparison. Population.

III. **Physical Features.** The coast, surface, mountains, rivers, lakes. The climate and soil.

IV. **Products:** (a) animal; (b) vegetable; (c) mineral.

V. **Cities and Towns**—the more important. For what noted.

VI. **Trade and Manufactures.** Imports, exports, and articles manufactured.

VII. **People:** race, nationality; chief occupations; character; education; religion; government. Other matters of interest.

EXERCISE 56.

Following the general plan given above, describe—

1. The city or town in which you live.
2. One or more of the largest twenty cities in the United States.
3. One or more of the following:—

London	Paris	Moscow	Rome	Dublin
Berlin	Birmingham	Tokio	Mexico	Florence
Liverpool	Edinburgh	Calcutta	Cairo	Vienna

EXERCISE 57.

After collecting the necessary information from either persons or books, arrange it according to the preceding plan in—

1. A description of your **native state or country**;
2. A description of one or more of the following:—

England	Scandinavia	Spain	Florida	Holland
New York	Italy	Chili	Greece	Mexico
France	Japan	Russia	Scotland	Australia
Brazil	China	Pennsylvania	Ireland	Java
Palestine	India	Egypt	Germany	California

V. DESCRIPTION OF NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL PRODUCTS.

85. Many **Natural Products** may be described with the help of such an outline as is here applied to —

*Iron.*¹

I. Introduction. The most useful and the most widely distributed of metals.

II. Appearance. A fibrous, dark-gray metal — found mixed with other minerals — very bright when polished.

III. Place where found or made. Most common metal in every country. Most valuable mines in Pennsylvania, Great Britain, Sweden, Belgium. Of most value when near coal mines. Why?

IV. Properties, etc.

Heavy. Nearly eight times as heavy as water.

Hard. Especially in form of steel and cast-iron.

Brittle. Compare with glass and lead.

Fusible. Melts when subjected to great heat.

Malleable. May be beaten and rolled into sheets.

Elastic. When made into steel, the most elastic of metals.

Ductile. May be drawn into wire as fine as a hair.

V. Method of obtaining or of making. Ore dug from mines — crushed — put in furnace and smelted — iron separated from slag — cooled in form of pig-iron, or run into moulds as cast-iron; if again heated and hammered, or rolled, it becomes *wrought* iron; heated again by charcoal, and united with carbon, it becomes steel.

VI. Uses. In all trades. Machinery, household utensils, ships, implements of war and husbandry, tools, bridges, building, cutlery, medicine, etc.

EXERCISE 58.

1. Expand the preceding notes in a description of **Iron**.

2. Following an outline similar to the preceding, prepare a description of one or more of these products: —

¹ *To the Teacher.* Exercises upon this and similar subjects should form the basis of several "Information Lessons."

Gold	Tin	Marble	Petroleum	Peat
Silver	Brass	Salt	Pearls	Mahogany
Lead	Nickel	Slate	Diamonds	Caoutchouc
Copper	Coal	Plumbago	Sponge	Cork

86. Artificial Products or Manufactured Articles may be described after the following plan:—

Glass.

I. Introduction. Well known in many ways, especially for its use in windows, when it began in the year 1180 to take the place of horn, mica, and oiled paper.

II. Form or Qualities. Transparent, fusible, ductile, brittle, smooth.

III. Parts or Materials. Sand, soda or potash, lime, and some oxides to give brilliancy or color.

IV. Process of Manufacture. Materials thoroughly mixed into a yellowish flour, called *frit*, and melted twenty-four hours in large pots set into a furnace. Allowed to cool until about as thick as paste, then taken by workmen.

Principal tool, the blowing-tube, an iron pipe five feet long, with wooden handle. Melted glass taken on end of tube, and blown into the required shape, or else rolled or moulded. Cut-glass ware ground and polished after blowing.

V. Kinds. *Common* window-glass blown into form of hollow cylinder, then cut open and flattened. *Plate* glass made in plates, rolled, and polished. *Flint* glass made of finer materials, used for lenses.

VI. Uses. For windows, bottles, wares of all kinds, optical instruments, ornaments, etc.

VII. Conclusion—general remarks. Almost indispensable for many purposes; in the telescope, nothing to take its place.

EXERCISE 59.

1. Write about **Glass**, using the foregoing outline and notes.

2. After properly arranging what you can learn about one or more of the following subjects, write an interesting description.

Thermometers	Paper	Cheese	Pins	Flour
Cotton Cloth	Leather	Silk	Alcohol	Starch
Gunpowder	Needles	Oil	Carpets	Vinegar
Barometers	Soap	Gas	A Book	Honey
A Wagon	Bread	Glue	Buttons	Candy
A Bicycle	Sugar	A Ship	Matches	A Shoe

VI. DESCRIPTION OF PROCESSES.

87. To tell how an article is made, or how anything is done, requires a thorough knowledge of the process and considerable skill in expression. We must—

I. State the **object** of the process; the difficulty, frequency of it, etc.

II. Describe the **material** used; the *tools*, *utensils*, and everything else required.

III. Mention the **persons** engaged in the work.

IV. Narrate the **details of the operation** from beginning to end, telling exactly what is done.

EXERCISE 60.

Take as a subject whichever of these processes you are familiar with, prepare an outline, and write a **description** of it.

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Setting a Table. | 11. Laying out a Base-ball Ground. |
| 2. Making a Bed. | 12. The Manufacture of Pottery. |
| 3. Harnessing a Horse. | 13. Printing a Newspaper. |
| 4. Making a Kite. | 14. Taking Care of Plants. |
| 5. Making an Apron. | 15. How to Play my Favorite Game. |
| 6. Getting Supper. | 16. How a Beaver Builds his House. |
| 7. Shoeing a Horse. | 17. The Care of a Canary. |
| 8. Building a House. | 18. Laying out a Tennis-court. |
| 9. Making Traps. | 19. The Coining of a Silver Dollar. |
| 10. Making Bricks. | 20. Making Cotton into Cloth. |

VII. DESCRIPTION OF ANIMALS.

EXERCISE 61.

1. From *what you already know* about **The Camel**, write as good a description as you can without making an outline.

2. Learn what you can about camels *from books and persons*, study the outline in § 88, and then follow it or add to it in rewriting your description.

88. In describing **an animal** we may follow an outline similar to that here applied to —

The Camel.

I. Introduction. The camel a large beast of burden; famous as "The Ship of the Desert."

II. Size, Shape, and Covering. Eight feet high; much larger than a horse; ungainly; humps (one or two) on back; covered with rough, dark brown hair.

III. Place where found: Arabia, Africa, Central Asia.

IV. Parts. *Head* small, like a sheep's, no horns; *teeth* unlike those of most herbivorous animals—more like a dog's, and suited to tearing off twigs and shrubs; *neck* long, no mane; *body* bulky; *legs* long, slender; *knees* provided with a cushion; *feet* broad, soft.

V. Food: thorny shrubs, date leaves, beans.

VI. Habits and Qualities. Chews the cud; seldom needs water; has great endurance; patient, obedient, kneels for burden; vicious toward its own kind.

VII. Uses. (*a*) Beast of burden; 300 pounds five or six miles an hour. (*b*) Its milk a favorite beverage. (*c*) Flesh salted for food. (*d*) Fat melted for butter. (*e*) Hair made into cloth.

VIII. Conclusion. Indispensable in long journeys across deserts. Anecdotes, etc.

EXERCISE 62.

Write a **description** of one or more of the following, making an outline of what is important to be said:—

Elephant	Crocodile	Frog	Raccoon	Reindeer
Lion	Ostrich	Spider	Sheep	Cod
Bear	Fox	Bee	Butterfly	Salmon
Wolf	Whale	Silkworm	Horse	Crow
Beaver	Eagle	Tiger	Cow	Swallow

VIII. DESCRIPTION OF PLANTS.

EXERCISE 63.

Select some **plant**, either wild or cultivated, of which you know the looks and habits very well, and try to describe it. Remember the stem, branches, leaves, flowers, and fruit; the shape, size, and color of all the parts; when it starts, when it blossoms, when it dies, etc.

89. It is one thing *to be acquainted* with a plant, — to know how it grows, how it behaves, and how it differs from other plants in its stem, its leaves, its flowers, and its fruits. This comes only by the study of plants themselves.

It is quite another thing *to know of what use* a plant is to man, and what treatment it receives.

90. A general description of a **plant as producing something useful to man** may follow this

OUTLINE.

I. Use and Value for food, clothing, building material, etc.

II. Place where found, and how discovered. Native or naturalized; wild or cultivated.

III. General Appearance: height, size, trunk, bark, branches foliage, flowers, fruit. Method of propagating.

IV. Part used. Method of gathering or collecting it, and of preparing it for its final use.

EXERCISE 64.

After reading and asking questions, or after a conversation-lesson in school, make an outline, and give a general description of **the plant** from which we get —

Flour	Sugar	Flax	Rubber	Mahogany
Rice	Cotton	Tea	Tobacco	Oranges
Corn	Coffee	Cork	Cocoa	Potatoes
Figs	Dates	Almonds	Bananas	Peanuts

IX. DESCRIPTION OF PERSONS.

91. It is easy to recognize a person, to distinguish him in a crowd, and to learn his ways; but it is hard to convey clearly to others the means of picturing to themselves one whom they have not seen, or of understanding his character. We must do the best we can to describe truthfully the —

I. Figure. Whether large, tall, stout, well-proportioned, or the opposite.

II. Face. *Features*, complexion, age, hair, etc.

III. Manners. Peculiarities of appearance, bearing, action, dress, and speech.

IV. Characteristics. Disposition, habits, peculiar traits, mental power, source of reputation, etc.

EXERCISE 65.

Describe, after making an outline, one or more of the following:—

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| 1. Your father. | 9. An Indian. |
| 2. Your most intimate friend. | 10. The most peculiar person you know. |
| 3. The family doctor. | 11. A clergyman. |
| 4. A baby. | 12. An Englishman. |
| 5. The oldest person you ever saw. | 13. A Chinaman. |
| 6. Yourself. | 14. An Italian. |
| 7. A tramp. | 15. The ideal boy or girl. |
| 8. A farmer. | |

CHAPTER VIII.

CHOICE OF WORDS.

A. WRONG WORDS.

92. *Incorrect Forms.* *Avoid all improper forms and words not in good use.*

Do not say —

gents for *gentlemen* or *men* ;
pants for *trousers* ;
ad for *advertisement* ;
kids for *gloves* ;
specs for *spectacles* ;
thanks for *thank you* ;
them things, for *those* things ;
to home for *at* home ;
to once for *at* once ;
nowheres for *nowhere* ;
yourn for *yours* ;
I am done for *I have done* ;

I ain't for *I'm not* ;
he *ain't* for he *isn't* ;
they ain't for *they're not* ,
hain't for *haven't* ;
says I for *I say* or *said I* ;
just as lives for *as lief* ;
drownded for *drowned* ;
attackted for *attacked* ;
preventative for *preventive* ;
unknown for *unknown* ;
blowed, throwed, knowed, etc., for
blew, threw, knew, etc.

93. *Unnecessary Words.* *Do not use words that are not needed to express the thought clearly.*

For example: *got* implies action, and should not be used with *have* to show simple possession, as in — We have *got* ten fingers.

EXERCISE 66.

1. *Relieve* the following sentences of all needless words or expressions:—

1. I have not got any money left. 2. My friend got badly hurt yesterday. 3. A widow woman called to see you. 4. From whence came they? 5. Smell of these flowers. 6. Taste of this fruit. 7. You had ought to read more. 8. I can never find no time. 9. You have stood up too long; sit down a while. 10. He has lost one half of his money. 11. Put the vase up on to the shelf. 12. From hence we infer his inability. 13. This fact is universally known by all. 14. Payment must be made by the latter end of the month. 15. You hadn't ought to use any unnecessary words. 16. Where have you been to? 17. Had I have known it, I should have gone also. 18. Edward and James they both went. 19. A strait connects them together.

2. Point out the superfluous words, and show why they are unnecessary.

1. He is equally as anxious as you. 2. Cover the plants over. 3. I shall always distrust him whenever he speaks. 4. The journey will require three weeks' time. 5. Keep off of the grass. 6. This evidence is wonderful and surprising. 7. You cannot give to a more worthier object. 8. He may probably go, but he cannot possibly succeed. 9. He was filled with unbounded admiration. 10. I shall first begin by showing the defects, and then afterwards I shall finish by showing the excellences of the system. 11. He abhorred and detested the idea of being in debt. 12. The funeral obsequies were largely attended. 13. I was just going to go. 14. You do very well for a new beginner. 15. The fort was completely surrounded on all sides by the enemy. 16. What you say is very true. 17. Thank those who are co-workers together with you. 18. Were you present at the final completion of the work?

94. Words confounded. *Avoid the use of one word for another somewhat like it in form or pronunciation.*

For example: do not use —

Except, to leave out, for **accept**, to receive, to agree to:

Affect, to act upon, to influence, for **effect**, to produce, to accomplish;

Love, to regard with affection, for **like**, to be pleased with, to enjoy;

Lay, reclined, for **laid**, placed [see § 512];

Sat, took a seat, for **set**, placed;

Learn, to acquire knowledge, for **teach**, to give instruction.

EXERCISE 67.

Fill the blanks with the appropriate word selected from the preceding list.

1. Please — my thanks for your kindness. 2. How was he — by the news? 3. You cannot — so wicked a purpose. 4. I — good music. 5. Will you — me to play chess? 6. Do you — easily? 7. Have you ever — up all night? 8. He — it away in his safe. 9. He — in bed until noon. 10. I — my neighbors, but I do not — them. 11. His troubles have — his mind. 12. I cannot — your invitation. 13. She has — down to rest.

EXERCISE 68.

1. From the dictionary learn the difference in meaning between the words in each of the following pairs:—

1. Prescribe, proscribe; 2. proceed, precede; 3. precise, concise; 4. statue, statute; 5. species, specie; 6. respectively, respectfully; 7. expect, suspect; 8. convince, convict; 9. lightning, lightening; 10. fly, flee; 11. liniment, lineament; 12. ingenious, ingenuous.

2. Use words from the *first three pairs* to complete these sentences:—

1. What did the physician —? 2. In what order did they — to the temple? 3. She was very — in her manners. 4. What you write must be —. 5. The band — the regiment.

3. Use each of the remaining words in a sentence or phrase, to show that you can discriminate between them.

EXERCISE 69.

Tell the difference in the meanings of these words, and use each word in a sentence:—

1. Missives, missiles; 2. emigrants, immigrants; 3. perjury, forgery; 4. diseased, deceased; 5. prospective, retrospective; 6. luxurious, luxuriant; 7. equity, iniquity; 8. retaliate, reciprocate; 9. principal, principle; 10. rout, route; 11. propose, purpose; 12. contemptible, contemptuous; 13. complement, compliment.

Common Errors in the Choice of Words.

95. Avoid the use of—

Above for *more than*; as in "I was gone *above* a week."

Aggravate for *irritate* or *provoke*; as in "The delay *aggravated* me."

Aggravate means "make worse."

Any for *at all*; as in "He cannot walk *any*."

Apt for *likely* or *liable*; as in "Where shall I be *apt* to find it?"

"You will be *apt* to stumble."

Back for *ago*; as in "This occurred sometime *back*."

Bad for *ill* or *sick*; as in "He is very *bad* to-night."

Balance for *rest* or *remainder*; as in "He spent the *balance* of his vacation in Europe."

Between for *among*. We should say "*between* two things," but "*among* more than two."

Both used with *alike*; as in "They are *both* alike."

Bound for *determined*; as in "The prisoner was *bound* to be free."

Can for *may*; as in "*Can* I close the window?" which means "Am I able to close it?"

Consider for *think* or *suppose*; as in "I *consider* him honest."

A couple of for *two*; as "A *couple* of men."

Dangerous for *in danger*; as in "My father is sick, but not *dangerous*."

Died with for *died of*; as in "He died *with* consumption."

Depot for *station*; as in "The train is at the *depot*."

Different than for *different from*; as in "Mine is *different than* yours."

Done for *did*; as in "He *done* it quickly." We should say, "He *did* it," or "He *has done* it."

Don't for *doesn't*; as in "He *don't* talk correctly."

Each other must be used in speaking of two, and **one another** in speaking of more than two; as in "The twins loved *each other*."
"The quartette were jealous of *one another*."

Expect, guess, or reckon for *suppose, presume, suspect, or think*; as in "I *expect* he left town yesterday." "I *guess* he will go."

Female for *woman*, **males** for *men*; as in "Apartments for *females*."

Fewer refers to *number*, **less** to *quantity*. We should say, "It will require *fewer* days and *less* money."

Healthy for *wholesome*; as in "Milk is *healthy* for children."

Hung for *hanged*. Pictures are *hung*, men are sometimes *hanged*.

Hurry up for *make haste*.

Lady for *madam* or *woman*; as in "What will you have, *lady*?" "She is a good *lady*." "They are *salesladies*."

Lay for *lie*; as in "*Lay* down, Bruno!" [See § 512.]

Leave for *let*; as in "*Leave* it alone!"

Like for *as*; as in "He did it *like* I do it." "Speak *like* I do."

Mad for *vexed*, *provoked*, or *angry*.

Most for *almost*; as in "He comes *most* every day."

Nicely for *well*; as in "How do you do?" "I'm *nicely*."

On to for *upon*; as in "Get *on to* the table."

Partially for *partly*; as in "The work is *partially* done."

Party for *person*; as in "Who was the *party* you met?"

Plenty for *plentiful*; as in "Money is *plenty*."

Posted or **booked up** for *informed*; as in "He is thoroughly *posted*."
"Book yourself *up* on that subject."

Quantity refers to what is *measured*, **number** to what are *counted*
We should say "a *quantity* of beans, a *number* of lemons."

Quite a must not be used for a *considerable*, a *great*, a *large*; as in
"Quite a number; quite a display."

Raised for *reared*; as in "I was *raised* in Vermont."

Real for *really* or *very*; as in "*real* pleasant, *real* cold."

Some for *somewhat*; as in "He is *some* weaker to-day."

Stop for *stay*; as in "I shall *stop* in Washington a month."

Street. We should say "I live at number ten *in* Pine Street." "I met him *in* the street," not *on* it.

These or **those** must not be used with *sort* or *kind*; as in "*those* kind,"
"*these* sort." Say *that* or *this*.

Transpire for *occur* or *happen*; as in "The event *transpired* in 1776."

Try for *make*; as in "*Try* the experiment."

Try and for *try to*; as in "*Try and* lift this weight."

Was must never be used with *we*, *you*, or *they* as subject; as in
"Where *was* you?"

EXERCISE 70.

Correct such sentences in the preceding section as are wrong. Try to explain *why* they are wrong.

EXERCISE 71.

Point out what you can **correct** or **improve**, and **read** each sentence as it should be.

1. Chestnuts are very plenty this year. 2. The trains collided together near the depot. 3. Quite a number were severely hurt. 4. Several have since died with their injuries. 5. I expect that the switchman was careless. 6. Mr. Dickens stopped at the Parker House, on School Street. 7. There are half a dozen histories, and it is very difficult to choose between them. 8. Their authors differ from each other on minor points. 9. The machine is partially done, but the inventor has been so busy trying experiments that he has not worked any this week. 10. Most any one can afford to pay a couple of dollars for a real fine copy like this.

11. The wounded man is some better, but the doctor still considers him dangerous. 12. There were less males than females in the audience. 13. Where shall I be liable to find the author? 14. His injury is a bad one, and will prevent his working for the balance of the year. 15. Where was you when he done it? 16. Both the brothers look just alike. 17. I guess you have made less mistakes than I. 18. Are you posted on these sort of things? 19. Won't you try and not make a noise?

96. Exaggerations. *Discriminate carefully in the choice of descriptive words, avoiding all inappropriate or exaggerated or "slang" expressions.*

It is useless to try to describe all kinds of things by such words as "nice," "lovely," "awful," "splendid," or "perfectly immense": find some other adjective that will express your meaning exactly, and remember that it is no disgrace to speak good English everywhere.

EXERCISE 72.

1. Substitute for the italicized words **suitable descriptive expressions.**

1. *Nice* weather; a *nice* picture; *nice* clothes; a *nice* man; a *nice* lecture; a *nice* ride; *nice* music; a *nice* plan. 2. An *awful* pen; *awful* good; *awfully* pretty; *awfully* dear; *awfully* slow. 3. *Splendid* pudding.

splendid entertainment; a *perfectly splendid* sermon. 4. This sidewalk is *just too lovely for anything*. 5. The delay was *disgusting*. 6. What a *pretty* steamship! 7. Those shoes are an *immense* fit. 8. I *just adore* caramels. 9. I *hate* long stories. 10. The coffee seems *mighty* weak. 11. What a *horrid* mistake! 12. A *perfectly lovely* salad.

2. Use correctly in sentences: nice, awful, horrid, splendid, lovely, disgusting.

97. Wrong Order of Words. *Arrange the parts of a sentence so that it may convey as clearly as possible just the meaning intended.*

EXERCISE 73.

Try to **improve the arrangement** of the words in the following expressions, and explain why changes are needed.

1. For sale: soft men's hats, black ladies' gloves, and leggings for children with or without feet. 2. We came very near being killed more than once. 3. He bought a new pair of gloves. 4. Carpets and clothes beaten and washed. 5. All rivers are not so swift. 6. Solve the next example to the end but one. 7. I should like to visit you very much. 8. I only recite in the morning. 9. I heard all you said very distinctly. 10. A fine view was obtained from the upper story of Niagara Falls. 11. Mrs. James only has one child. 12. I have been trying to have my watch repaired every day this week. 13. I never expect to be any taller than I am now. 14. Try to always put adverbs in their proper place.

98. Double Meaning. *Construct sentences so as to avoid all ambiguous statements.*

EXERCISE 74.

Reconstruct each of these sentences so that it shall have only one meaning:—

1. Ask how old Mrs. Jones is. 2. What I want is common sense. 3. The judge told the lawyer that he was not an authority. 4. I have not heard from one of my friends. 5. She has given me more than you. 6. My friend's father died while he was in Europe. 7. I promised her mother that I would call upon her sister.

B. SYNONYMS.

99. We often find several words nearly alike in meaning, each one of which we must learn to use in its proper place. Such words are called **Synonyms**. Thus:—

Ancient, old, aged, elderly, antiquated, are synonyms, for, in a general way, they have the same meaning; but we say “ancient customs,” “old trees,” “aged or elderly persons,” “antiquated fashions.”

100. *Synonyms* are words that have the same or nearly the same meaning.

EXERCISE 75.

1. Separate the following words into **five groups**, each containing **five synonyms**.

2. Use the words of each group in expressions that will illustrate their meaning. Thus:—

“A *plot* to rob the bank”; “the *arrangement* of words”; “a *scheme* for raising money”; “a *conspiracy* to assassinate the king.”

plot	misfortune	grand	beautiful	reduce
diminish	scheme	calamity	superb	free
liberal	decrease	plan	disaster	magnificent
splendid	generous	abate	conspiracy	catastrophe
mishap	gorgeous	lavish	lessen	arrangement

EXERCISE 76.

1. Find at least one or two **synonyms** for each of these words:—

Busy; bold; honest; counterfeit; obscure; barren; appease; cheerful; dead; larceny; defeat; certain; collect; death; frighten; censure; frank; famous; obstinate; spacious.

2. Give one or two words that are **opposite in meaning** to each of the foregoing.

EXERCISE 77.

Read each phrase, **substituting synonyms** for the italicized words.

1. *Insipid* fruit. **2.** *Gnarled* oaks. **3.** *Relentless* foes. **4.** *Chap-*

lets of flowers. 5. *Sepulchres* of kings. 6. *Auspicious* omens. 7. Debtors' *assets*. 8. *Martial* music. 9. *Voluntary* offering. 10. A *gluttonous* fellow. 11. *Waning* power. 12. *Obsequies* of a ruler. 13. *Imprudent* methods. 14. *Infallible* signs. 15. *Indelible* impressions. 16. Merchants' *liabilities*. 17. Raleigh's *explorations*. 18. *Frugal* habits. 19. *Brutal* actions. 20. *Benevolent* feelings.

EXERCISE 78.

What is the **difference** between —

- | | | |
|----------------------------|-----|--------------------------|
| 1. a <i>lazy</i> boy | and | an <i>idle</i> boy; |
| 2. a <i>large</i> man | and | a <i>great</i> man; |
| 3. a <i>large</i> gift | and | a <i>generous</i> gift; |
| 4. what one <i>wants</i> | and | what one <i>needs</i> ; |
| 5. he <i>hopes</i> | and | he <i>expects</i> ; |
| 6. a <i>trade</i> | and | an <i>occupation</i> ; |
| 7. what is <i>fragrant</i> | and | what is <i>odorous</i> ; |
| 8. <i>peeling</i> fruit | and | <i>paring</i> fruit; |
| 9. a <i>street</i> | and | a <i>road</i> ; |
| 10. an <i>angry</i> man | and | a <i>mad</i> man. |

EXERCISE 79.

Study the words in each of the following pairs till you think that you understand the meaning of them. Then **use** each of the words so as to show that you can discriminate between them.

1. That is **healthful** which *gives* health; that is **healthy** which *has* health.

2. **To remember** is to call to mind readily; **to recollect** is to recall with effort. We can sometimes recollect what we do not remember.

3. **Habit** is the result of **custom**. What is *customary* soon grows to be *habitual*.

4. A man's **reputation** depends on what he *appears* to be; his **character** is what he really *is*.

5. **Brave** and **courageous** men do their duty even though suffering from fear or disapproval; **bold** and **reckless** men neither fear nor care.

6. **Crimes** are offences against law; **sins** are offences against the right.

7. We **convince** a man by argument; we **persuade** him by advice and entreaty.

EXERCISE 80.

Explain the **difference in meaning** between the words of each pair. Thus:—

Do not say "I *guess* so" if you know enough about the subject to say "I *think* so" or "I *presume* so" or "I *suppose* so."

Mountains and clouds are *high*; masts and trees are *tall*.

- | | | |
|------------------|------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. high, tall; | 4. silent, quiet; | 7. pardon, forgive; |
| 2. glance, look; | 5. economical, stingy; | 8. kill, murder; |
| 3. tomb, grave; | 6. hear, understand; | 9. see, notice. |

EXERCISE 81.

Discriminate between the words in each pair, and **use** them in sentences.

- | | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. love, like; | 4. bring, fetch; | 7. believe, think; |
| 2. export, transport; | 5. bear, carry; | 8. frugal, miserly; |
| 3. follow, pursue; | 6. discover, invent; | 9. education, learning |

EXERCISE 82.

Answer these questions in complete sentences, whether you use synonyms or not:—

1. Why is food called *nutritious*? *palatable*? *indigestible*?
2. Why is a man called *mercenary*? *magnanimous*?
3. What is the difference between an art and a science?
4. Explain why an occurrence is called *annual*; *semi-annual*; *biennial*; *triennial*; *centennial*; *bi-centennial*.
5. What is a *sedentary* occupation? a *lucrative* one?
6. What is *official* information? an *officious* person?
7. Tell how a *speech*, a *lecture*, a *sermon*, an *oration*, and a *eulogy* differ from one another.
8. What is it for one to be *lenient*? *diffident*?
9. What is a *loquacious* man? a *taciturn* man?
10. When is one's conduct *exemplary*? *decorous*? *despicable*? *noble*? *immoral*? *vicious*?

EXERCISE 83.

Answer these questions thus:—

"A *just* decision is one that is fair to both parties."

"*Authentic* reports are such as come from a reliable source."

1. What is a —

1. *just* decision? 2. *salubrious* climate? 3. man of *veracity*?
4. *veracious* statement? 5. *voracious* animal? 6. *majority* of five?
7. *minority* of three? 8. *ambiguous* remark? 9. *mortal* wound? 10. *plurality* of seven?

2. What are —

1. *sanguinary* battles? 2. *pugnacious* people? 3. *contemporaneous* events? 4. *tyrannical* rulers? 5. *arbitrary* rules? 6. *maritime* countries? 7. *hospitable* persons? 8. *authentic* reports? 9. *junior* partners? 10. *candid* views?

EXERCISE 84.

Explain clearly what it is to —

1. *mortgage* a farm. 2. *deed* the land. 3. *resign* an office. 4. *counsel* delay. 5. *execute* the laws. 6. *commute* a sentence. 7. read *responsively*. 8. ask for *clemency*. 9. go with *alacrity*. 10. *excavate* a cellar. 11. *fumigate* a house. 12. *embezzle* money. 13. prove *inefficient*. 14. *feign* sickness. 15. *retract* a statement. 16. *foreclose* a mortgage. 17. *endorse* a note. 18. *condone* a crime. 19. *acquit* a prisoner. 20. *exterminate* a tribe.

EXERCISE 85.

Substitute single words for the italicized expressions.

1. I went of *my own accord*. 2. *Old soldiers*. 3. It can be done *without difficulty*. 4. Go to that place | *without a moment's delay*. 5. Men of *wisdom* interpret the *laws of nature*. 6. A man *without money and without friends*. 7. The statement *cannot be denied*. 8. My labors are of *no utility*. 9. Were the proceedings *according to law*? 10. We were *wet to the skin*. 11. A man *worthy of esteem*. 12. Facts *not to be disputed*. 13. A river *that cannot be forded*. 14. An attack *that could not be resisted*. 15. He saw several *mummies that were found in Egypt*. 16. With a *rapidity that cannot be conceived*.

EXERCISE 86.

Substitute words or expressions as synonyms for the italicized words.

1. *Prepare* your lessons. 2. *Honor* your parents. 3. The thief was *caught*. 4. He spoke *excitedly*. 5. *Peacefully* slept the weary children. 6. A *furious* gale was raging. 7. A few *dilapidated* old buildings still stand in the *deserted* hamlet. 8. We *urged* his *going*. 9. The Nile *overflows* *once a year*. 10. Much *fatigued* we *reached* the end of our journey. 11. *Farming* is a *pleasant* occupation. 12. There is no cause *sacred enough* to *justify* a *violation of the truth*. 13. We *resolved* to make the attempt in *spite of all difficulties*. 14. The prisoners were *condemned* and *executed*.

EXERCISE 87.

Substitute sentences of equivalent meaning.

1. The *opposing* forces stood in *battle array*. 2. The supply *constantly increases*. 3. Plants are the *habitations* of insects. 4. They *traversed* the *lofty* mountains that *surround* this beautiful *region*. 5. The *majority of mankind* earn their *livelihood* by *hard work*. 6. The army was *animated* by the spirit of its leader. 7. Sailors *encounter* *constant perils*. 8. The *intelligence* was brought by a *courier*. 9. Our *liberties* were not *secured* without a *struggle*.

EXERCISE 88.

Substitute simpler or more appropriate expressions for those that are italicized.

1. He *resides* in an *elegant mansion*. 2. The barn was *consumed* by the *devouring* element. 3. We *attended* *divine services*. 4. He was *cut down* by the *scythe of Time*. 5. She was *ushered* into *existence* in Maine. 6. The streams are *bound* by *winter's icy chain*. 7. The ice broke, and the boy was *launched* into *eternity*. 8. We were *conveyed* to the *dearest spot on earth* in an express wagon. 9. Crowds *congregated* to witness the race. 10. *Divest yourself of your outer habiliments*, and stay with us. 11. There were some *gorgeously appparelled* members of the *gentler sex* present. 12. *Immediately upon our establishment in the hostelry* we *partook of a sumptuous repast*.

CHAPTER IX.

PARAPHRASING.

101. We have learned that there are *right* ways and *wrong* ways of saying what we mean, but we know that in telling a story no two persons would use precisely the same words and expressions, though the language of both might be excellent.

Almost any idea can be well expressed in various ways.
Thus : —

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| (1) My gown is golden yellow. | (3) My dress is as yellow as gold. |
| (2) In color my gown resembles gold. | (4) My dress is of a golden hue. |

So instead of (1) "It is a dark day," we may write —

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| (2) The sky is overcast. | (5) There isn't a ray of sunshine. |
| (3) A vast cloud obscures the sun. | (6) A dark day this. |
| (4) What gloomy weather! | (7) Isn't this a cheerless day? |

EXERCISE 89.

Change the following sentences in as many ways as you can, trying to express the thought fully and accurately in **different language**.
Thus : —

"He speaks the truth." He tells no lies. He is truthful. He is a man of his word.

1. He speaks the truth. 2. He is patriotic. 3. He is faithful.
4. This book interests me. 5. Do I trouble you? 6. He neglects his business. 7. It is not needed. 8. The thief does not fear punishment. 9. These birds migrate. 10. The earth was first circumnavigated by one of Magellan's ships. 11. My impression differs from yours. 12. Do not squander your time. 13. Never put off till to-

morrow what ought to be done to-day. 14. Our doubts were presently dispelled. 15. Robert Fulton, who invented the steamboat, died prematurely from poverty and toil. 16. No man is entirely free from foibles. 17. "Take Time by the forelock; he is bald behind."

102. When we thoroughly change the *form* in which a thought has been expressed, without much changing the meaning, we make a **Paraphrase**.

103. Practice in paraphrasing should enable us to vary our forms of expression, to speak with greater precision, to choose the best form of all, and to extend our knowledge of words and of their meanings.

EXERCISE 90.

1. Write each sentence five times, **varying the order of words**.

1. Prepare, my friends, in time of peace for war.
2. Soon a rocky mass mixed with snow came rattling down.
3. Nobody but you, I think, was here after the war.
4. "Your hand," cried the girl suddenly, as her foot slipped.

2. Change and condense into *four* sentences, — then into *three*:

(1) I was in a swamp. The year was 1875. It was May. I was lost. (2) The water was deep. It was cold. Dead trees filled it. My clothes were torn. Brambles caused it. (3) I wandered long. Then the ground was drier. The light increased. I was out.

Transformation of Poetry into Prose.

104. One may acquire skill in the use of language by trying to turn poetry into prose.

Poetry is noticeably different from prose; for, —

(1) It has *meter* and *rhythm*¹ and *rhymes*;

¹ *To the Teacher.* The meaning of rhythm, or the division of verse into lines, couplets, stanzas, etc., and that of meter, or the regular arrangement of accented and unaccented syllables, should be clearly exemplified to the class at the outset.

- (2) The order of the words is often *inverted* ;
- (3) Many of its words and phrases are *not used in prose* ;
- (4) It often contains many *figurative expressions* and *peculiar constructions*.

105. In changing poetry to prose, we are not to change the meaning: we are rather to express the ideas, as well as we can, in the simple, straightforward language of prose or of conversation.

To do this, we must generally, —

- (1) *Change the order of the words.* Thus: —

“Bent is his head with age, and red his tearful eye,” becomes, —
His head is bent with age, and his eyes are red with weeping.

- (2) *Substitute prosaic for poetic words.* As —

Often for oft, evening for eve, against for 'gainst, etc.

- (3) *Conceal the rhymes and the meter* or measured step of the words, either by re-arrangement or by the use of synonyms. Thus: —

“A man he was to all the country dear,
And passing rich with forty pounds a year,” becomes, —

He was a man whom everybody loved, and his annual income of forty pounds made him surpassingly rich.

- (4) Sometimes we must *form new sentences* with changes in punctuation.

EXERCISE 91.

Make the **order of words** in the following selections the same that it would be in prose, and conceal all the **rhymes**: —

1. “Few and short were the prayers they said.”
2. “There purple grows the primrose pale.”
3. “The highest meed of praise he well deserves.”

4. "From labor health, from health contentment springs."
5. "'I've lost a day,' — the prince who nobly cried,
Had been an emperor without his crown."
6. "That mercy I to others show,
That mercy show to me."
7. "Of joys departed
Not to return, how painful the remembrance."
8. "Vessels large may venture more,
But little boats should keep near shore."
9. "By fairy hands their knell is rung;
By forms unseen their dirge is sung."
10. "Stone walls do not a prison make,
Nor iron bars a cage."
11. "For 'tis a truth well known to most,
That whatsoever thing is lost,
We seek it, ere it comes to light,
In every cranny but the right."

EXERCISE 92.

Transform the following selections so as to make them sound like ordinary prose:—

1. "He is not poor that little hath, but he that much desires."
2. "Of all wit's uses the main one
Is to live well with who has none."
3. "What you keep by you, you may change and mend,
But words once spoke can never be recalled."
4. "Bear through sorrow, wrong, and ruth,
In thy heart the dew of youth,
On thy lips the smile of truth."
5. "Sweet is the pleasure itself cannot spoil!
Is not true leisure one with true toil?"
6. "Three poets in three distant ages born,
Greece, Italy, and England did adorn:
The first in gracefulness of thought surpassed;
The next in majesty; in both, the last."

EXERCISE 93.

Transform the following into prose: try to conceal the **meter**.

1. "I watch the mowers as they go
Through the tall grass, a white-sleeved row;
With even stroke their scythes they swing,
In tune their merry whetstones ring."
2. "In the country, on every side,
Where far and wide,
Like a leopard's tawny and spotted hide,
Stretches the plain,
To the dry grass and the drier grain
How welcome is the rain!"
3. "I saw a farmer plow his land, who never came to sow;
I saw a student filled with truth, to practice never go;
In land or mind I never saw the ripened harvest grow."
4. "Do thou thy work; it shall succeed
In thine or in another's day;
And if denied the victor's meed,
Thou shalt not miss the toiler's pay."

EXERCISE 94.

Paraphrase the following selections: —

1. "Let us then be up and doing, with a heart for any fate."
2. "To swear is neither brave, polite, nor wise."
3. "A thing of beauty is a joy forever."
4. "How blessings brighten as they take their flight."
5. "Into each life some rain must fall."
6. "Never make your ear the grave of another's good name."
7. "Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and a few are to be chewed and digested."
8. "The rank is but the guinea's stamp,
The man's the gold for all that!"
9. "The bravest trophy ever man obtained
Is that which o'er himself is gained."
10. "If little labor, little are our gains;
Man's fortunes are according to his pains."

CHAPTER X.

THE SENTENCE: KINDS.

[Review §§ 5-7.]

106. When we converse with one another, or write letters to our friends, we first have thoughts in our own minds, and then we show to others what they are by the words that we use; so that what we *say* depends on what we *think*.

EXERCISE 95.

1. Think of something you did yesterday, and tell what it was.
2. Mention three things that happened in your last vacation.
3. What questions might a stranger ask in a city?
4. Ask two questions about your next vacation.
5. Say three things that you are asked to do by your teacher.
6. How would you ask for a book?

107. Each word differs from almost every other word in its meaning or in its use, and we select those best suited to express our thoughts.

If we were to go into the woods together, we might say, —

1. **I should like to come here every day.**
2. **This path leads to the cliff.**
3. **Do the birds sing in the rain?**
4. **Are there any violets there?**
5. **Listen to the brook.**
6. **Come and sit under this tree.**

On a ship we should have very different thoughts, and we might say, —

1. The water looks very green.
2. I am very fond of sailing.
3. What makes the clouds seem so low?
4. Wouldn't you like to see an iceberg?
5. Come out on the quarter-deck.
6. See that steamer in the distance.

108. In each of these examples the words are so arranged that they have a definite meaning, and taken together they form what is called a **sentence**. Let us see for what purpose each of these sentences is used.

Read the first two sentences in each group. In these we say what we *know* or *believe*.

Read sentences 3 and 4. In these we do not say that anything *does* or *is* so and so, we only *ask* about it; and in sentences 5 and 6 we *request* or *order* something to be done.

EXERCISE 96.

1. Write two questions that might be asked after a snow-storm. Two commands that might be given. Two statements that might be made.
2. Write six more as if you were on a railway train.

109. Any other sentences we could make would do one of these three things, — assert, ask, or order. Hence we say that —

Sentences are complete assertions, questions, or commands.

EXERCISE 97.

1. Make a perfect copy of the twelve sentences given in § 107.
2. What is the meaning of "assert"?
3. Make assertions in answer to the four questions.

4. Make replies to the four requests.
5. Change the four assertions to questions.

110. When we speak and when we write we put our words together into sentences of one kind or another. If we use only single words, such as —

leads, like, are, birds, brook, path,

we do not really say anything; and if anybody speaks them, we can only wonder, "*Who leads?*" "*Who like?*" "*What are?*" "*What about birds, brook, path, etc.?*"

111. The same is true of every group of words that is not a sentence, even though the words may be arranged so as to have some meaning. For example: —

the clouds.	fond of sailing.
under this tree.	looks green.
school of fishes.	leads to the castle.
through the valley.	to the brook.
green with leaves.	has brought.

If we should read these expressions backwards, they would have no meaning at all; as they are, they might form parts of sentences: but they are not sentences, and they do not give any information, for they do not form statements, questions, or commands.

EXERCISE 98.

1. Think about each of these groups of words, and then tell whether it is a **complete sentence** or only **part of one**. Give your reason thus: —

"Green with leaves" is not a sentence, because it does not form a statement, question, or command.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A fine October morning. 2. The leaves are red and green. 3. And some yellow. 4. Here are some purplish ones. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. None are brown. 6. The trees in the swamps. 7. Very few flowers remain. 8. All along the road to the pond. |
|--|--|

- | | |
|--|---|
| 9. Found twenty dead trees. | 16. Let us try to find some nuts. |
| 10. Some were girdled by mice. | 17. Are there any chestnut-trees
in the grove? |
| 11. Dry and brittle as pipe-stems. | 18. Very few. |
| 12. We set them on fire. | 19. Bring your basket to-morrow. |
| 13. O such a blaze! | 20. If it rains. |
| 14. The smoke filled the air. | 21. Three gray squirrels in a hol-
low tree. |
| 15. A strong wind from the north-
west. | |

2. **Change** those of the preceding groups that are only **parts** of sentences, into **complete sentences** by using additional words.

3. Tell in your own words what they are all about, as if you were **telling a story**.

112. We have seen that every sentence either asserts or asks or orders. Hence we say that —

There are **three kinds of sentences**. We call them assertive, interrogative, and imperative.

113. An *Assertive Sentence* states a fact or an opinion.¹

As: You speak correctly. You will learn to speak correctly.

114. An *Interrogative Sentence* asks a question.²

As: Do I speak correctly?

115. An *Imperative Sentence* gives a command, makes a request, or expresses a wish.²

As: Speak correctly. Please teach me to speak correctly.

EXERCISE 99.

1. After reading each of these sentences, tell whether it is **assertive**, **interrogative**, or **imperative**. Give your reason thus: —

"Cheer up" is an imperative sentence, because it gives a command.

¹ The use of suppositions, as, "If he come," is confined to clauses.

² Without being a statement.

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. Have you ever heard of Australia? | 7. Do you really mean it? |
| 2. That's a strange question. Of course I have. | 8. Tell me. |
| 3. Do not be provoked. | 9. How long should we stay? |
| 4. I am going there next month. | 10. Think how I should enjoy it! |
| 5. Should you like to be my companion? | 11. You <i>will</i> take me. |
| 6. Indeed I should. | 12. Won't you say yes? |
| | 13. O I must go! |
| | 14. Stop! |
| | 15. Remember how far it is. |

2. Listen to the reading of sentences by your teacher, and tell the kind of each as you hear it.

3. Classify the sentences in any of the subsequent exercises in this book.

4. What does "interrogative" mean?

116. Exclamations. Sentences of any of these classes may also be exclamatory; that is, they may also express excitement, surprise, or impatience. For example:—

ASSERTIVE: 'Tis false! There he goes!

INTERROGATIVE: Who would be afraid!

IMPERATIVE: Stop it! Keep your courage up!

EXERCISE 100.

1. Which of the sentences in Ex. 99 are also exclamatory?
2. What kind of sentence is each of these?

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Hark! | 5. Rouse, ye Romans! |
| 2. Who cares! | 6. May Heaven bless you! |
| 3. Do come here! | 7. What do you say, you rascal! |
| 4. We shall be so happy! | 8. Who would have believed it! |

117. Exclamations like—

How many colors the sunset shows!

What a long ride it would be to the moon!

seem to form a new class; but they are really shortened forms of command sentences.—See how many colors, etc. Think what a long ride, etc.

Exclamations of this kind always begin with *how* or *what*.

118. Punctuation. The following rules show us how to begin and end our sentences:—

119. Every sentence must begin with a capital letter.

120. An *assertive* or an *imperative* sentence must be followed by a period [.] .

121. An *interrogative* sentence must be followed by a question-mark [?].

122. But a sentence of any sort that is also exclamatory, should be followed by an exclamation-point [!].

EXERCISE 101.

Copy these sentences, using **capitals** and marks of **punctuation** where they belong:—

there was a storm of sleet and snow yesterday the night was very cold is the road on the hill smooth enough for coasting bring your sleds we will go to see let the wind blow are you well protected shall we run to keep warm here we are at last what do you think of this couldn't I steer the double-runner see us go to the bridge across the creek give us a good start look out for the old stump this is a fine coast we came down in less than half a minute shall we try it again

EXERCISE 102.

1. Write one assertive sentence about coal; one about charcoal; and one about coke.

2. Write an interrogative sentence about wool, cotton, or flax, using your teacher's name.

3. Write an imperative sentence addressed to a well-trained dog. To a stage-driver. To an army.

4. State a fact about the telescope.

5. Write a question to a friend about his health.

6. Make an order asking the grocer to send you something.

7. Write three assertive sentences about photographs.

8. Make an assertion about London.

9. Change this assertion to a question.

CHAPTER XI.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

A. THE SUBJECT.

123. Every assertive sentence must of course be an assertion *about something*. Whenever we make a statement, we say that *something* is or does so and so.

EXERCISE 103.

Read each sentence, and say what the statement is about.

- | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Embers glow. | 5. Dewdrops glisten. | 9. Candles flicker. |
| 2. Opals gleam. | 6. Sunsets flame. | 10. Torches blaze. |
| 3. Fire-flies glint. | 7. Lamps flare. | 11. Diamonds sparkle. |
| 4. Gold glitters. | 8. Lightning flashes. | 12. Stars twinkle. |

124. The part of the sentence that signifies *what we speak of* is called the **subject**. Thus, in the sentence—

Bees hum,

we speak of *bees*, and the word *bees* is the subject.

EXERCISE 104.

What is the **subject** in the following sentences? Give your reason thus:—

“Horses neigh.” In this sentence the word “horses” is the subject, because it represents that about which something is said.

- | | | |
|--------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 1. Sparrows chirp. | 4. Owls screech. | 7. Doves coo. |
| 2. Chickens peep. | 5. Crows caw. | 8. Geese cackle. |
| 3. Cocks crow. | 6. Larks sing. | 9. Hens cluck. |

125. In the following sentences the same statement is made about four different things:—

- Butterflies** find honey in flowers.
Honey-bees find honey in flowers.
Humming-birds find honey in flowers.
Burly bumble-bees find honey in flowers.

Read the subject of each one, and tell how many words are used in forming it.

EXERCISE 105.

What is the **whole subject** in each sentence? Give your reason thus:—

“The deep blue sea flows round the world.” In this sentence the words “The deep blue sea” are the subject, for they represent that of which something is said.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. The ocean is bitter and salt.
2. The wind was dying away.
3. Large and small fishes came to the surface to breathe.
4. Several whales were spouting.
5. Seven icebergs were drifting past.
6. What sign of life was there? | 7. A polar bear could be seen amidst the ice and snow.
8. The strongest ships are often crushed in the ice-floes.
9. Whale-fishing is a dangerous occupation.
10. D is the first letter of danger and of death. |
|--|--|

126. The *Subject* represents that about which something is said.

B. THE PREDICATE.

127. In every assertive sentence something *is said about* one thing or another.

EXERCISE 106.

What is said of the objects named in each of these sentences?

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| 1. Clouds float.
2. Rain falls.
3. Sleet drives.
4. Snow drifts. | 5. Hail rattles.
6. Water splashes.
7. Wind blows.
8. Waves break. | 9. Breakers roar.
10. Billows roll.
11. Oceans surge.
12. Tides flow. |
|---|---|--|

128. This part that states, declares, or asserts, is called the **predicate**. Thus, in the sentence —

Frogs croak,

the word **croak** is the predicate, because it stands for what we say about frogs.

EXERCISE 107.

What is the **predicate** in these sentences? Give your reason thus:—

“Lions roar.” In this sentence “roar” is the predicate, because it is used to say something about “lions.”

- | | | |
|------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Donkeys bray. | 4. Dogs bark. | 7. The sea is rough. |
| 2. Bears growl. | 5. Lambs bleat. | 8. The sails are rent. |
| 3. Wolves howl. | 6. Monkeys chatter. | 9. We drop anchor. |

129. In the following sentences four different statements are made about the same thing:—

Icebergs **melt slowly.**

Icebergs **come from the polar regions.**

Icebergs **drift with the polar currents.**

Icebergs **are very dangerous to commerce.**

Melt slowly in the first is the predicate, because it represents what is asserted of icebergs.

Read the predicates of the other three sentences, and observe that they consist of several words.

EXERCISE 108.

1. What is the **entire predicate** in each sentence? Give your reason thus:—

“The night was nearly spent.” Here the words “was nearly spent” are the predicate, because they show what is said about “the night.”

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. All nature was asleep. | 4. The sun had just appeared. |
| 2. Every leaf was still. | 5. Robins and bluebirds began to |
| 3. The dew was sparkling. | flutter about. |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 6. Gray smoke curled up from the chimneys.
7. The stage-horn sounded in the distance. | 8. A dusty drover was hurrying some sheep along the road.
9. Everything seemed to catch the spirit of the morning. |
|--|---|

2. Copy the sentences in Ex. 105, and draw a vertical line between the subject and the predicate, thus:—

The earth | moves round the sun.

130. The *Predicate* represents what is said about something.

C. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE COMBINED.

131. We have found that every assertive sentence has two necessary parts, — the **subject**, representing that about which the assertion is made, and the **predicate**, signifying what is asserted of the subject.

Two words therefore may make a sentence.

Interrogative and imperative sentences might be divided in the same way, but we study assertive sentences first because they are easier and more common.

EXERCISE 109.

1. Make **predicates** for each of these subjects, thus:—

“Eyes see,” — and so on.

eyes		mouths		hands		wings
ears		teeth		feet		fins
noses		tongues		fingers		tails

2. Make **subjects** for each of these predicates, thus:—

“Lead sinks,” — and so on.

sinks		drifts		drive		sail
floats		swim		wade		ripple
freezes		melts		row		dash

EXERCISE II0.

Make sentences, using one of these words as subject and one as predicate : —

fishes	frogs	men	girls	monkeys
crawl	walk	trot	leap	chatter
worms	birds	boys	horses	ships
fly	float	swim	run	dance

132. We generally require *more than one word* to show what we wish to speak of. Thus, we may wish to say that —

Trees grow,

meaning trees in general; but if we wish to speak more definitely, we say, —

Those trees | grow, or

Those tall trees | grow, or

Those tall trees with arching branches | grow.

So, too, generally more than one word is needed to express what we wish to say about anything. Thus, we may say, —

The trees | **grow**, or

The trees | **grow rapidly**, or

The trees | **grow rapidly this year**, or

The trees | **grow rapidly this year without care**.

Hence the subject and the predicate may each consist of several words.

EXERCISE III.

Write predicates of *more than one word* for these subjects; that is, say something so as to make an assertive sentence : —

1. Stars	5. Margaret	9. The West Indies
2. The sun	6. Alfred	10. A looking-glass
3. The moon	7. Honesty	11. My photograph
4. Humming-birds	8. Kindness	12. Oil-paintings

13. Peacocks	16. Anger	19. Drops of water
14. Squirrels	17. The United States	20. A boat on the lake
15. Helen	18. The Andes	21. Huge waves

EXERCISE 112.

Write subjects of *more than one word* for these predicates:—

1. are chirping.	11. laid the wall.
2. are buzzing.	12. built the house.
3. are croaking.	13. made the furniture.
4. is the President of the United States.	14. are found in the woods.
5. was a great general.	15. float in with the tide.
6. were an ancient people.	16. live upon flesh.
7. shade the streets.	17. are all used for food.
8. shade the windows.	18. are found in menageries.
9. shade the women's faces.	19. is a beautiful poem.
10. grow in the conservatory.	20. contained the advertisement.
	21. was very neatly written.

D. ESSENTIAL SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

133. If we think about the sentences we use, we see that the subject part is very different from the predicate part.

EXERCISE 113.

Which of these expressions might be used as **predicates**?

1. the smoke	5. covers the ground	9. a delicate perfume
2. over the valley	6. morning mists	10. will evaporate
3. disappeared	7. may settle	11. smells very sweet
4. poisonous gases	8. was scattered	12. of a furnace

134. Some of our words, as—

John, eagles, dewdrops, courage, childhood, are *names* of things, and, like him, I, you, etc., they cannot be used to state or assert. But we see at once that *asserting* words, like—

catches, soar, glisten, strengthens, hastens, are very different, and that we do not use them as subjects.

EXERCISE 114.

Which of these words are **names** of things? Which of them can be used to **assert**?

raked	grass	pruned	wealth	fails
vines	awoke	seed	buys	believes
fields	wept	goods	lawn	poverty
sells	mowed	plowed	slept	succeeds

135. The complete subject of a sentence must always contain one word that serves as a name for what we speak of. The most of such words are called **nouns**. So the complete predicate must always contain an assertive word called a **verb**.

These are the necessary or **essential** parts of every subject and predicate, no matter how long they happen to be.

Thus, in the sentence —

The white snow | falls upon the fields,

the complete subject is — **The white snow**; but of these three words the necessary or essential one is **snow**, for it names what we speak of more than either of the other words does. We call it the *essential subject*.

So in the complete predicate, **falls upon the fields**, the essential word is **falls**; for it is the least that will make an assertion, and there would be no assertion without it. Hence, it is the *essential predicate*.

EXERCISE 115.

Lengthen each of these bare sentences by adding words to the essential subject and to the essential predicate, so as to make a fuller and more definite statement. Thus:—

“Trouble | arises.” Serious trouble among friends | often arises from trifling causes.

1. ivies grew	4. carpenter built	7. walls fell
2. ships sail	5. house stood	8. windows looked
3. pictures hang	6. gale broke	9. room contained

EXERCISE 116.

1. In these sentences what is the whole or **complete** subject?
2. Find the bare or **essential** subject; that is, the one word that names what the assertion is about.

1. Our journey soon begins. 2. The last day has come. 3. Many years of happiness are gone. 4. All the future is uncertain. 5. A cold, bleak wind is blowing. 6. Travelling by night seems dreary. 7. The road to town is rough and steep. 8. For a week no friends will greet us.

EXERCISE 117.

1. In these sentences what is the **complete** predicate.
2. Find also the bare or **essential** predicate; that is, find the asserting word.

1. The storm passed this side of the mountains. 2. Our prospects brightened at once. 3. We hoped for the best. 4. Time decides all questions. 5. Something always happens unexpectedly. 6. The surprise gives us courage. 7. The morning finds our journey ended. 8. Who cares for wintry storms?

EXERCISE 118.

Write these sentences; separate the principal parts by a vertical line; draw a *wavy* line under the **essential subject**, and a *straight* line under the verb, or **essential predicate**, thus:—

The leaves of this tree | fall every autumn.

1. The southern forests yield the largest timber. 2. The trunks of some trees measure several feet in diameter. 3. The elms resemble human beings. 4. Their arching tops almost speak to us. 5. Whispers come from groves of pine. 6. Their needle-like leaves make a luxurious carpet. 7. The sturdy oak stands for stability and strength. 8. The wood of this tree serves many useful purposes. 9. The lifetime of a tree depends in part on its surroundings. 10. A century in the forest makes a venerable giant. 11. Earth with her thousand voices praises God. 12. Bad habits gather by unseen degrees. 13. The paths of glory lead but to the grave. 14. The broken soldier talked the night away. 15. The king unstrung his chain of gold. 16. Such gallant act deserves a meed of praise.

CHAPTER XII.

KINDS OF WORDS.

136. Since we have studied the two most important ways of *using* words, we now know what the two principal *kinds* are.

Words *used to assert*, even if they have very different meanings, are all classed together as **verbs**; and when we speak of **nouns** we always mean words that can be *used as names*.

So, too, all other words are divided into classes according to the way we **use** them in making sentences. Hence we say that —

137. Words are divided into kinds or classes according to their *use* in sentences.

EXERCISE 119.

1. Write seven words that can be used as names.
2. Use each one with other words in making a sentence.
3. Write seven that can be used to assert, and make sentences with them.
4. Tell how each of the words in Ex. 114 may be used.

I. NOUNS.

EXERCISE 120.

1. Mention five kinds of birds; of fur-bearing animals.
2. Name five things you have seen in a store; at a fair.

3. Name five things to be seen at the seaside, or by a river. Name five to be seen —

On a ship. Among mountains. On a farm. In a mill.

4. Name several things to be heard —

On the street. When travelling. In church. In the night.

5. What are four things that make —

A good scholar? A good soldier? A boy's character? A poor scholar?

138. About half the words in our language are alike in one respect; that is, they are names of things, and are therefore called **Nouns**.

EXERCISE 121.

1. Examine these sentences carefully, and mention every name or **noun** that you find:—

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. The garden is brilliant with daffodils and tulips. | 8. The merry shouts of children fill the air. |
| 2. Their beauty depends much upon their colors. | 9. What report did the messenger bring? |
| 3. This brook is full of fine trout. | 10. The breeze brings the odor of the flowers. |
| 4. "Poor Richard" was born in Boston. | 11. Pain teaches men patience. |
| 5. Hear the jingle of the sleigh-bells. | 12. Hope was followed by despair. |
| 6. A cry of joy rings through the land. | 13. Our guide had no fear in times of danger. |
| 7. How delicate the perfume is! | 14. Innocence is the charm of childhood. |

2. Which of the nouns denote something that has weight?

139. Some nouns stand for such things as can be seen; as, —

daffodils, beauty, Richard, Boston:

others for what we hear; as, —

jingle, cry, shout, report:

some for what we can only smell; as, —

fragrance, odor, perfume:

others for what can be felt in some way; as, —

breeze, pain, heat, fear, despair:

and when we come to think more about all such things we find use for many other nouns; as, —

innocence, charm, childhood.

Arrange all the nouns in the last exercise in five lists as in § 139

140. A *Noun* is a word used as the name of something.

The word "noun" means just this: the *name* by which a thing is *known*.

EXERCISE 122.

1. Make a list of ten vehicles that run on wheels.
2. What names are given to structures in which men live?
3. Name some things that are found in the earth.
4. In what different craft do men travel by water?
5. Name as many as you can of the parts of a ship.

141. An assertion may be made about anything we can name, and so any noun may be the subject of a sentence. But we often use the name of something about which we do not make any statement, and so we may have in one sentence many nouns besides the subject. Thus:—

This steamship | has two red paddle-wheels, a black stack for the smoke, and three tall masts without sails.

Here **steamship** is the subject, and the complete predicate is a long one containing five nouns. What are they?

EXERCISE 123.

1. Which of the nouns in Ex. 121 do not belong to the subject?
2. Tell how many nouns are used in each sentence in Ex. 105.
3. Write sentences, using **three** of these nouns in each one:—

flock	raven	fox	thief	wings
geese	piece	tail	home	flapping
trees	cheese	brush	dinner	noise

142. When the complete subject contains the names of several things, we must be careful to distinguish the one *essential* word which if it stood alone would still name the subject. Thus, in the sentence —

The famous palace of the kings of the Moors at Grenada, in Spain, | was called the Alhambra,

we have five nouns in the complete subject; but we see that it is the **palace** that is said to have been called the Alhambra. The other words are added to show *which* palace is referred to.

EXERCISE 124.

1. Make a list of the twenty-five **nouns** in these sentences. Draw a wavy line under the eleven used as **subjects**.¹

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. The darkest clouds bring rain. | 7. At night the moon could not be seen. |
| 2. The leaves of the trees rustled in the wind. | 8. The trees along the river were torn up by the roots. |
| 3. Great clouds of smoke were floating in the air. | 9. The birds' feathers were wet and dripping. |
| 4. The rays of the sun were almost entirely obscured. | 10. The brooks on the mountains were swollen to torrents. |
| 5. A dim light came in at the windows. | 11. A wooden bridge near the town was carried away. |
| 6. Our tasks were left undone. | |

2. Write an account of a severe storm.

EXERCISE 125.

- 1.** Make a list of **nouns** that designate the members of a family or other relatives.
- 2.** Give ten nouns that designate people according to their trades.
- 3.** Name the different parts —
of a wagon; of a bird; of a book; of a watch; of a church.
- 4.** Name some things made —
of glass; of leather; of paper; of steel; of snow; of stone.
- 5.** Mention the names of several games; virtues; vices; diseases.

¹ While studying grammar we will use the word "subject" to mean the "essential" subject.

II. PRONOUNS.

EXERCISE 126.

1. In the sentences:—

Mr. Richardson was a wealthy man. **He** kept many horses. **These** were **his** favorites. **They** lived in a fine stable. **It** was like a dwelling-house,—

who is meant by **he**? What by **these**? By **his**? By **they**? To what does **it** refer?

2. Copy the sentences, using these other words instead of **he**, **they**, etc., but without changing the meaning.

3. Which do you think is the better way to make these assertions? Give the reason.

4. Mention all the nouns in your copy.

143. Besides nouns, there are a few other words such as **he**, **these**, **they**, **it**, that often stand for that which we have just mentioned, no matter what it is.

Thus, if any one said,—

The President has inspected the Navy,

he might add,—

He found it in fair condition;

but he would not repeat the nouns, and say that,—

The President found the Navy in fair condition.

So when we point to a thing, instead of calling it by name, we generally use a word of this kind like *this* or *that*, *these* or *those*.

144. Such words are called **Pronouns** because they take the place of nouns; and we always prefer to use them if only we can be understood.

EXERCISE 127.

1. Try to **improve** the following by using other words instead of repeating the nouns:—

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The people were returning from work. | 4. One woman was very ill. |
| 2. The work was very hard. | 5. This woman was being carried by the woman's husband. |
| 3. The work seemed to make the people weary. | 6. The husband was the town-crier. |

2. If Jane were speaking to John, would she say, "John surprised Jane," or, "You surprised me"?

3. If Carl were greeting his friend William, what would he say instead of "Carl is glad to see William"?

145. When we speak or write to a person, we do not keep referring to him by name; we say *you*, instead: and when we say anything about ourselves, we never think of using our names; for, no matter what they are, we almost always say, *I, me, myself, we, us*, and so on.

Thus, we should say, —

I wish **you** would come to see **me**,

and the reply might be, —

We shall be glad to have **you** entertain **us**.

Here there are no nouns, — nobody is mentioned by name; but the meaning would be very clear to those who were present.

Try to substitute names, and you will see how convenient the pronouns are.

EXERCISE 128.

1. Select the **pronouns** in these sentences; that is, the words used instead of nouns.

- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| 1. The doctor is coming. | 6. It was perfectly white. |
| 2. Call to him. | 7. They seemed to me to be frozen. |
| 3. Have you improved? | 8. The nurse was with us. |
| 4. Yes; I feel quite well. | 9. She warmed them by rubbing |
| 5. Early this morning I could see your arms stretched out over the snow. | 10. You must thank her. |
| | 11. We are very glad. |

2. Which of the pronouns are used as **subjects**?

146. When we do not know the name of a person or a thing, we use a pronoun to ask a question. Thus:—

Who brought the news?

Which did you say?

What caused the fire?

Whom shall we blame?

EXERCISE 129.

1. Write assertive sentences in answer to the preceding questions.
2. What words have you used in place of the pronouns?
3. Write imperative or interrogative sentences, using **two** of these pronouns in each one:—

I, myself; me, mine; we, ourselves; us, ours.

147. (a) Every one of the thousands of nouns in our language, and every expression, however long, that is used like a noun to describe a person or a thing, can be replaced at one time or another by pronouns.

(b) The use of them enables us to point out what we have been talking about more exactly than we could by taking the trouble to describe it again.

(c) Pronouns form a class by themselves because their meaning depends upon the connection in which they stand; but they are used as subjects and in other ways very much as nouns are.

EXERCISE 130.

In these sentences give the whole expression that each pronoun takes the place of:—

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The sail down the river was very pleasant. | 6. Two of them were very exciting. |
| 2. It occupied about nine hours. | 7. His first vessel was a brigantine of six hundred tons. |
| 3. We met several fine yachts. | 8. She foundered off the coast of Jamaica. |
| 4. They seemed to be racing. | 9. He told us how he was forced to abandon her. |
| 5. The captain of the steamer told many of his adventures. | |

148. A *Pronoun* is a word that may take the place of a noun, and represent any person or thing as present or just mentioned.

The word "pronoun" means *for a noun*.

III. VERBS.

EXERCISE 131.

1. What are assertive sentences? Give an example.
 2. What are the other kinds? Make a sentence of each kind.
 3. Explain the meaning of "assert."
 4. Make assertions about five things that you see.
 5. Which of the following are assertive? Are they sentences of any sort? Tell your reason.
1. Squirrels in hollow trees.
 2. The sap in the spring.
 3. We chestnuts in October.
 4. The ice thick enough to bear.
 6. Make assertive sentences of them by using *live, flows, gather, is*.
 7. Change them to interrogative sentences.

149. Words used to assert are **Verbs**.

They are not as numerous as nouns, but they form an equally important class, and most other words have been derived from them.

150. To make a complete sentence we need only give the *name* of something, and say or *assert* something about it. With a *noun* or a pronoun and a *verb* we can do just this. As,—

Flowers fade.

Grass withers.

I command.

They obey.

Without a verb there can be no assertion, — no predicate, — no sentence.

EXERCISE 132.

1. What kind of word will make **sentences** of the following? Supply what is needed.¹

1. Rubber from South America.
2. The pure gum very valuable.
3. Water the wheels of the mill.

¹ Exercises of this sort should be repeated till the function of verbs is distinctly *felt*.

4. The cotton-plant in the Gulf States.
5. A letter three thousand miles for two cents.
6. The Gulf Stream north-east.
7. Behring Strait the Arctic and the Pacific Oceans.
8. The signal service a fair day to-morrow.
9. The snow ten feet deep in the woods last winter.
10. The boys all hunting yesterday.
11. The fox by hiding under a rock.
12. Trout-fishing considerable skill.

2. Mention the verbs in Ex. 117.

151. The verb may be *a single word* that asserts; as when we say, —

The tree | **grows**, meaning *now, or*

The tree | **grew**, meaning *some time ago*.

But if we wish to speak of time to come, we must say, —

The tree | **will grow**;

and in all these sentences, —

The tree | **is growing**.

The tree | **has grown**.

The tree | **would have grown**.

The tree | **may be growing**.

The tree | **might have been growing**.

we need the help of one, two, or three *other* words besides **grown** and **growing**, in order to assert what we mean about the growth of the tree.

The words of each group taken together we call a **verb-phrase**, because they do the work of a single verb.

EXERCISE 133.

Select the expressions of more than one word that take the place of single verbs; that is to say, the **verb-phrases**.

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| 1. The message was brought an hour ago. | 2. We had hoped for better news |
| | 3. But we must lose no time. |

- | | |
|---|--|
| 4. The best horses have been sent
over the turnpike. | 9. Perhaps we shall meet them
all at Castleton. |
| 5. They may overtake the party. | 10. Saddle your horses at once. |
| 6. Otherwise nothing but failure
awaits us. | 11. The back road will be safest. |
| 7. We might have kept Nero. | 12. I should inquire for them at
Newbury. |
| 8. It is too late now. | 13. They must have gone early. |

152. Contractions. The first word of those that help to make a verb-phrase, is sometimes written so as to show that we cut it short in speaking. Thus, —

We've met him, for We have met him.

EXERCISE 134.

Copy these expressions, writing out the verbs in full, as if they were to be spoken slowly:—

- | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I'm sorry. | 5. It's too late. | 9. They'd just gone. |
| 2. She'll come. | 6. We're here. | 10. She's waiting. |
| 3. Time's up. | 7. You've heard. | 11. You'd be surprised. |
| 4. I've done. | 8. Who's come? | 12. We sha'n't stay. |

153. A *Verb* is an asserting word or phrase.

The word "verb" means *word*, — *that which is spoken*.

154. A Verb-phrase is a group of words used as a single verb. Verb-phrases are often called **verbs**.

We shall learn sometime that many other groups of words used like single words are also called *phrases*.

EXERCISE 135.

Select the single **verbs** and the **verb-phrases**.

1. The air thickens. 2. Familiar objects are hidden as by a mist.
3. Paths disappear. 4. Voices of teamsters are heard. 5. Nothing
can be seen in the road. 6. Like a fog the snow hides all things.
7. Not a breath of wind disturbs its descent. 8. The branches of the
trees are clothed as with wool. 9. Still the noiseless flakes fill the
sky. 10. A change has taken place.

155. It very often happens, as in these sentences, —

The **man** has a son. They **man** the boats.

that there is no difference in the spelling of two words, one of which is a noun and the other a verb: and we must remember to decide about them by their *use*.

EXERCISE 136.

Distinguish between the **nouns** and the **verbs** that are spelled alike in these sentences. Thus:—

“Pass” in first sentence is a *verb*; “pass” in the seventh sentence is a *noun*.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Pass through here. | 7. Fear not the pass. |
| 2. Order a load of stones. | 8. He drives without fear. |
| 3. Load them with care. | 9. He hands me a whip. |
| 4. They work with their hands. | 10. He dogs me while at my work. |
| 5. They care not for play. | 11. We whip them by your order. |
| 6. He stones the stray dogs. | 12. They play during my drives. |

EXERCISE 137.

Write sentences, using each word once as a **noun** and once as a **verb**, as in § 155.

heat	fly	hope	milk	point
chain	rock	water	fan	deck
stand	fall	iron	lap	strap

EXERCISE 138.

Select one of the following topics, and write **five short sentences** about it. Draw a *wavy* line under the subject, and a *straight* line under the verb.

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. A thunder-storm. | 5. Taking a photograph. |
| 2. Getting breakfast. | 6. A bicycle ride. |
| 3. Making hay. | 7. A drive in the country. |
| 4. A game of ball. | 8. A ride to the city. |

IV. ADJECTIVES.

156. We must have seen that most sentences are made up of *something more* than a *noun* (or a pronoun) and a *verb*.

It is true, of course, that the very shortest ones *may* give us some information about their subjects. For example: in

Ice breaks and Diamonds glitter,

ice and *diamonds* are described a little; but nobody wants to say, —

Ice is or Diamonds are,

for these verbs **is** and **are** do not tell us anything worth saying.

We have to add the **descriptive** words, thus: —

Ice is **brittle**.

Diamonds are **brilliant**.

Ice is **cold**.

Diamonds are **scarce**.

Ice is **transparent**.

Diamonds are **costly**.

Without these additions the predicate seems incomplete.

EXERCISE 139.

1. Which are the **descriptive** words in these sentences? What is described by each of them?

1. My roses are yellow.

8. Your rabbit is shy.

2. The sky was clear.

9. I am hungry.

3. The path will be narrow.

10. She can be careful.

4. The day had been cold.

11. We should be generous.

5. My answer may be wrong.

12. My friend looks ill.

6. They seem anxious.

13. The milk has become sour.

7. The night grows dark.

14. The knives must be sharp.

2. Could the descriptive words be used like nouns as the subject of a sentence? Tell the reason.

3. Change these expressions to **assertions**; then change them to **questions**: —

1. yellow gold

3. lofty mountains

5. dull knife

2. eloquent orators

4. fierce tigers

6. skilful doctors

EXERCISE 140.

Make assertions, using with the verbs words **descriptive** of these things. Thus:—

"Foxes are *cunning*."

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Foxes —. | 7. The pears in my orchard —. |
| 2. The use of tobacco —. | 8. Our country —. |
| 3. Rosewood —. | 9. That well —. |
| 4. The music —. | 10. Yonder mountains —. |
| 5. Some clouds —. | 11. My kitten —. |
| 6. Your clock —. | 12. Country roads —. |

EXERCISE 141.

What descriptive words can be used with these nouns to imply that what they name have the **qualities** set opposite them? Thus:—

"Timber is *strong*." "Horses are *swift*."

- | | | | |
|-----------|----------|-------------|--------------|
| 1. timber | strength | 6. wagons | weight |
| 2. coals | heat | 7. clothing | warmth |
| 3. poles | length | 8. flowers | beauty |
| 4. grass | dampness | 9. children | truthfulness |
| 5. horses | speed | 10. tigers | ferocity |

157. Even when we use a verb that does not require something to be added, as in —

Roses grow,

still we commonly wish to tell what kind of roses is meant, and how, or where, or when they grow. Thus:—

Yellow roses grow **by** **still** rivers.

EXERCISE 142.

What could these words be used to describe? Thus:—

"Disastrous *fires*."

- | | | | | |
|--------|----------|------------|----------|-----------|
| brave | brisk | disastrous | scrowful | brilliant |
| feeble | noisy | wild | heavy | useless |
| clear | charming | uncertain | siresome | late |

158. Words of this kind are called **Adjectives** because they describe a person or a thing by *adding* some quality to the name that is used; that is, they **describe** or **qualify** what is mentioned.

EXERCISE 143.

1. Which words in these sentences are used with a noun to **describe** the object it represents by **adding some quality**?

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Kind friends have come. | 13. White, fleecy clouds are in the blue sky. |
| 2. They brought us purple grapes. | 14. I see a large grasshopper on a pointed leaf. |
| 3. Black clouds turn to rain. | 15. He has eaten a small round hole in it. |
| 4. Rolling stones gather no moss. | 16. My tapping on the leafy bough stops his merry song. |
| 5. Grangers gather golden grain. | 17. Then a green locust begins with a loud buzz. |
| 6. Studious boys make intelligent men. | 18. The limp grass would be revived by a gentle rain or a heavy shower. |
| 7. Fairest flowers will fade. | |
| 8. Absent friends forget us. | |
| 9. Little leaks sink great ships. | |
| 10. Old wood makes the best fire. | |
| 11. Sound health is long life. | |
| 12. It is a warm day in July. | |

2. Copy ten of these sentences, underlining subject and verb. **Enclose adjectives** that qualify the subject in curves. Thus:—

(**Kind**) friends have come.

3. Make lists of four adjectives each that may be used to describe, —

iron	road	trees	coal	grapes
sponge	desk	rope	watch	ship
river	gold	farm	tar	sea

159. An adjective, then, may be used in **two ways**:—

1. We may make it a part of the predicate so as to assert that the subject has a certain quality; as, —

The meadows are **fertile**.

An adjective used in this way is called a *predicate adjective*.

2. Without using it as part of the assertion we may make it add to what the noun alone would mean ; as, —

Happy children have **sunny** faces.

EXERCISE 144.

1. Mention the **adjectives** that are descriptive, and tell to what each one adds a quality.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The day was pleasant. | 9. Laughing is contagious. |
| 2. The busy bee improves the shining hour. | 10. The moon silvers the distant hills. |
| 3. The old songs are delightful. | 11. The full moon threw its silvery light upon the rippling waters of the lake. |
| 4. The Yosemite Valley is noted for its magnificent scenery. | 12. On a low bench under a spreading tree sat an old sailor. |
| 5. The domestic commerce of Boston is extensive. | 13. Beneath her torn hat glowed the wealth |
| 6. I am reading an interesting book. | Of simple beauty and rustic health. |
| 7. Richard looked sober at this. | |
| 8. Delays are dangerous. | |

2. Which of the adjectives are **part of the predicate**?

160. Whichever way used, most adjectives *describe* what the noun or the pronoun represents. But there are **other words called adjectives**, which affect the meaning in a *different way* ; thus, if we say, —

The king lived a year and **some** months in **this** city,

we show that we mean only a *particular* king, only *one* year, about *how many* months, and *which* city. These words, **the**, **a**, **some**, **this**, are adjectives, because they *add* something to our meaning that was not expressed by the noun alone : but they do not tell what *kind* of king, year, month, or city, as if we were to say, —

A **good** king lived a **dreary** year and three **tiresome** months in a **hostile** city.

161. Words that refer to number are of this sort; as here,—

one day	sixteen months	first minute
two weeks	tenth hour	half second

These show to just how many or to which one the name applies; and there are only about forty others, including,—

a or an , the ,	every , few ,	same , several ,
many , any , all ,	first , last ,	this or these ,
each , either ,	much , no ,	that or those .

162. Such adjectives, without referring to any quality, always add something to our meaning by showing **which ones**, or **how many**, and so on. Without them the meaning of a noun might be very indefinite, and so we say that they **determine** or **limit** the application of it.

EXERCISE 145.

Select the adjectives that do not describe, but only show to which ones or to how many the noun applies. Tell what each one **limits**.

1. Eight men were on that committee.
2. February has twenty-nine days every fourth year.
3. Each exercise must be well written.
4. Much harm arises from imprudence.
5. No man knows all things.
6. Every flock contains some black sheep.
7. This park contains forty-four acres.
8. All the trees in yonder row have stood there many years.
9. Several English elms and some maples were blown down.
10. That pond down the slope is used for skating every year.
11. There are no shade trees on either side of that street.
12. Few persons take much interest in such matters.
13. Both rivers rise in the same plateau.
14. A careless or ignorant person might improperly say "*them* books" instead of "*those* books."
15. Always say "*this* kind," "*that* sort": it is an error to say "*these* kind," "*those* sort."

163. An *Adjective* is a word that may be added to a noun or a pronoun either to describe or to determine what it means.

The word "adjective" means something *that is added* to a noun or name.

164. Descriptive or qualifying adjectives *describe* what is mentioned.

Limiting adjectives show *which ones, how many, and so on, without describing.*

EXERCISE 146.

1. Put all the adjectives into two lists,—one for those that describe, and one for those that do not.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. We have caught a few speckled trout in that brook. | 7. Every blossom on that apple-tree should have five petals. |
| 2. The new yacht <i>Louette</i> won the last race. | 8. The century-plant blossoms only once in its lifetime of seven to fifty years. |
| 3. Large quantities of cotton are exported from this country each year. | 9. Deciduous trees lose their foliage every autumn. |
| 4. Carnivorous animals eat animal food. | 10. Evergreen trees are covered with foliage all the year round. |
| 5. Herbivorous animals eat vegetable food. | 11. Galls are round bodies formed on some plants by the stings of insects. |
| 6. Omnivorous animals eat all kinds of food. | |

2 What does each adjective modify?

EXERCISE 147.

Use with each of these nouns two adjectives,—the first telling **which** one, or **how many**, and so on; and the other telling the **kind**, or adding a **quality**. Thus:—

"This fruitful field."

field	waves	clouds	steamer	church
soldiers	medicine	bees	stories	grain
storm	cattle	silk	books	river

165. Punctuation. RULE. — *Two or more qualifying adjectives that describe the same thing must be separated by commas, unless there are words between that connect them all.*

Thus, we write a **large sleigh** without commas, using an adjective of each kind, or **the same sleigh**, using two limiting adjectives; but

the same old, broken, one-seated sleigh

needs commas between the qualifying adjectives. So in the expression, —

Dark, long, and weary hours.

But when the adjectives are all connected, we write, —

The hills are desolate and rugged and wild.

EXERCISE 148.

Put **commas** where they should be in the following:—

1. All attentive studious faithful scholars —
2. Every well-bred intelligent man —
3. A wild barren uncultivated district —
4. Broad well-watered fruitful plains —
5. An honest kind and generous nature —

EXERCISE 149.

1. Use each of these words as an **adjective**, and as a **noun** or a **verb**:—

sound	right	second	spruce	warm
light	stone	mail	rage	stone

2. **Change** the descriptive adjectives to others of similar meaning:—

We saw many novel sights in this remote town. There was a remarkable clearness in the air, and there were lofty hills all about clothed with extensive forests. We were walking along a zigzag path towards a rather desolate spot where the yearly fair had once been held. The abandoned booths were vacant, but we met a numerous company of persons who had come a prolonged journey through these retired valleys on some charitable errand to the peasants. They had found the burning heat very disagreeable, and seemed to be tired and eager to rest.

V. ADVERBS.

EXERCISE 150.

1. Which words in these sentences show **when** the men are to work?

2. Which tell **how**, or in what manner, they ought to work?

3. Which show **where**?

4. Which show **how much**?

The men must work **quietly**. The men must work **well**.

The men must work **early**. The men must work **now**.

The men must work **here**. The men must work **outside**.

The men must work **less**. The men must work **more**.

5. Can you think of any other single words that would show *how*, or *when*, or *where* men must work?

166. If we should take away from the examples in Ex. 150 these words, **quietly**, **early**, **here**, **less**, **well**, **now**, **outside**, **more**, just the same thing would be asserted in every sentence. But each one of the words that are added to the verb makes a little change in what the verb alone would mean; for they show *how*, *when*, *where*, and so on.

EXERCISE 151.

Which words are added to the verbs to show **how**, **when**, **where**, and so on?

1. Wait **patiently**.

2. You must go **now**.

3. I shall visit Europe **soon**.

4. Have you ever been **there**?

5. The train runs **regularly**.

6. Snow sometimes **delays** it.

7. The plough soon **scatters** the snow.

8. It was **scarcely** needed.

9. The pendulum **moves** to and fro **continually**.

10. The day has almost **ended**.

167. Words of this sort are called **Adverbs** because they are *added to verbs* to make our meaning more definite, very much as adjectives are added to nouns and pronouns.

EXERCISE 152.

Fill each blank with an adverb that will tell **when**, **where**, or **how**.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. The girls write —. | 6. Our hearts beat —. |
| 2. We shall sing —. | 7. The river flows —. |
| 3. Those yachts sail —. | 8. The fire burns —. |
| 4. They returned —. | 9. The messenger will return —. |
| 5. We might go —. | 10. Can you read music —? |

EXERCISE 153.

Mention every **verb**, and the **adverb** that modifies it, telling whether it shows how, when, or where. Thus:—

The verb "must go" is modified by the adverb "now," which shows *when* we must go.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| 1. We must go now. | 5. He bears trouble patiently. |
| 2. Yonder comes my father. | 6. They sometimes sing finely. |
| 3. I never called there again. | 7. The best often fail. |
| 4. Water is found everywhere. | 8. Return quickly. |
| 9. The procession moved slowly onward. | |
| 10. Our friends will probably come back to-morrow. | |
| 11. The rain fell heavily last Tuesday. | |
| 12. Lightning flashed vividly in the clouds. | |
| 13. The thunder rumbled everywhere. | |
| 14. People were running hither and thither. | |
| 15. Umbrellas were quickly raised. | |
| 16. Carriages dashed hurriedly along. | |

EXERCISE 154.

Copy some of the sentences in Ex. 153, marking subject and verb, and putting the adverbs in brackets. Thus:—

The procession moved [onward] [slowly].

168. Some of these words have another use.

Thus, instead of —

The hill is steep; This book is new, —

we should often wish to say *how steep*, *how nearly new*, and so on, as in —

The hill is **very** steep.

The hill is **less** steep.

The hill is steep **enough**.

The hill is steep **here**.

This book is **almost** new.

This book is **quite** new.

This book is **entirely** new.

This book is new **now**.

But what kind of a word is *steep*, and what have we done to express our meaning more fully?

There are modifiers for *adjectives*, then, just as much as for nouns and verbs.

EXERCISE 155.

First select the **nouns**, and say what adjectives qualify or limit them. Then tell which adjectives have a word added to show *how* or *how much*.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. This lesson is very short. | 5. Oxen are rather sluggish animals. |
| 2. You are extremely careless. | 6. Fred is remarkably cheerful this morning. |
| 3. Can you find a partly open rose? | 7. Is it too difficult for you? |
| 4. He read an exceedingly interesting story. | |

169. Such words we already know about: they are *adverbs*. The reason for using the same kind of words with both adjectives and verbs, is that both need to be modified in the same way; that is to say, by telling *how*, *how often*, *when*, *where*, *how much*, *how little*, and so on.

EXERCISE 156.

1. Select the **adjectives** in these sentences, and tell which of them are modified by **adverbs**:—

1. The night was very dark.
2. Everybody was sleeping soundly.
3. The dim light of the new moon was almost entirely concealed.
4. I was rather late about my errand.
5. The somewhat steep path over the hill was little trodden.
6. It was very much too rocky for so dark a night.
7. Even the sky was nearly black.
8. I was wisely cautious.
9. Except for such great care I should have fallen repeatedly.
10. I finally reached my destination in a completely exhausted condition.

2. Read the sentences, omitting the adverbs.

170. Sometimes, in order to show just what we mean, we need to modify an *adverb*. Thus:—

He has come **often** may be changed to —

He has come **very** often, or **rather** often, and —

He spoke **truly** may become —

He spoke **quite** truly, or **more** truly, or **less** truly.

EXERCISE 157.

Which words in these sentences modify adverbs? —

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Speak very distinctly. | 5. Kind deeds are almost never forgotten. |
| 2. James, you read too rapidly. | 6. Have we gone far enough? |
| 3. How quietly that train runs! | 7. Our exercises must be more neatly written. |
| 4. Water is found almost everywhere. | |

171. In such sentences the words that *modify* adverbs are *themselves* adverbs, and could be used to modify adjectives or verbs.

Adverbs, then, can be used in *three* different ways.

172. An *Adverb* is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

EXERCISE 158.

1. Use these adverbs in sentences to modify *verbs*:—

cautiously	seldom	often	formerly
faithfully	always	again	lately
sometimes	forever	backward	never

2. Use these adverbs in sentences to modify *adjectives*:—

almost	too	totally	quite
nearly	so	entirely	how

3. Use adverbs—all different—to modify the following in sentences:—

feebly; rapidly; much; greatly; well.

VI. PREPOSITIONS.

EXERCISE 159.

1. What is an adjective?
2. In the expressions in the first column, what words describe houses? What kind of words are they?

1.	<i>wooden</i> houses	or	houses <i>of wood</i> .
2.	<i>empty</i> houses	or	houses <i>without occupants</i> .
3.	<i>three-storied</i> houses	or	houses <i>with three stories</i> .
4.	<i>public</i> houses	or	houses <i>for the public</i> .
5.	<i>city</i> houses	or	houses <i>in the city</i> .

3. What do the groups of words in the second column describe? What are they used like?

4. Use **adjectives** in place of the following italicized groups without much changing the meaning. Tell what each modifies.

1. Business *of importance* detained me.
2. Carpets *from Persia* are costly.
3. We found a wagon *with two seats*.
4. Men *of wealth* should be generous.

EXERCISE 160.

1. What is an adverb?
2. What words in the first column tell *how*, *when*, or *where* the ship sails? What kind of words are they?

1.	The ship sails <i>rapidly</i>	or	The ship sails <i>with rapidity</i> .
2.	The ship sails <i>safely</i>	or	The ship sails <i>without danger</i> .
3.	The ship sails <i>afar</i>	or	The ship sails <i>to a distance</i> .
4.	The ship sails <i>now</i>	or	The ship sails <i>at this time</i> .
5.	The ship sails <i>there</i>	or	The ship sails <i>for that place</i> .

3. What does each group in the second column tell about the sailing of the ship? What does each one mean? What are they used like?

4. Use **adverbs** in the place of the italicized groups without much changing the meaning. What does each modify?

- | | | |
|---|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1. The Indians lived <i>in this place</i> . | | 3. Be courteous <i>at all times</i> . |
| 2. Never write <i>without care</i> . | | 4. Do they deal <i>upon honor</i> ? |

173. The single words that we have used to modify other words are adjectives or adverbs; but we see that little groups of words called **phrases** may be used to modify both nouns and verbs in about the same way.

Thus we may speak of—

a **thorny** bush or a bush **with thorns**;
an **English** home or a home **in England**.

It is easy to see that **with thorns** and **in England** are very much like adjectives in meaning, though they are put after the noun instead of before it. Again, in these sentences,—

The letter was **carefully** written. It was sent **promptly**.
The letter was written **with care**. It was sent **without delay**.

the phrases **with care** and **without delay** seem to modify the verbs just as the adverbs **carefully** and **promptly** do. So, too,—

The wind blew **very furiously** might be changed to—
The wind blew **with great fury**.

174. It very often happens that there is no adjective or adverb in our language that will serve as a modifier to express our meaning, and then we are forced to use such phrases.

Here, for example, we could not possibly find a single word that would take the place of the phrases:—

The house **by the river** is a hotel. He came **from the city**.
Those **on the shelf** are sold. The bucket hung **in the well**.
The path **of industry** leads to success.
My friend was **with his regiment**.

All such groups of words are called *phrases* because they are used like single words.

We have already learned that a verb-phrase is used like a single verb, and we shall find that there are still other kinds of phrases.

EXERCISE 161.

1. Which **phrases** in these sentences are used like *adjectives*?

2. Do those that are used like *adverbs* tell how, when, where, or how often?

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. He came in haste. | 6. He pays his rent by the month. |
| 2. We are in fear. | 7. He finished his task with ease. |
| 3. People of intelligence live in this place. | 8. He came to this place after the time. |
| 4. Diamonds of great value are found in that field. | 9. Children like stories about fairies. |
| 5. My friend never comes behind time. | 10. The plan was made in secret. |
| | 11. We shall deal upon honor. |

3. Change the **phrases** to adjectives or adverbs, if you can think of any that will serve.

EXERCISE 162.

1. Use a **phrase** instead of the adjective or adverb.

- | | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Turkish rugs | 5. strong men | 9. go now |
| 2. juvenile books | 6. a marine disaster | 10. send it soon |
| 3. Java coffee | 7. spoke distinctly | 11. study diligently |
| 4. silver plates | 8. went homeward | 12. walk quietly |

2. Use an **adjective** or an **adverb** in place of the phrase.

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. a road along the river | 9. lands beyond the seas |
| 2. a path up the mountain | 10. jewelry from France |
| 3. a man of strength | 11. treat all with respect |
| 4. a journey toward home | 12. came to this place |
| 5. a child at play | 13. polite at all times |
| 6. a trip through Europe | 14. speak in public |
| 7. women of fashion | 15. behave with propriety |
| 8. women of sense | 16. a bird on the wing |

175. All these phrases contain a noun or a pronoun with a word like *of*, *with*, *from*, *in*, *at*, or *by*, that connects it with what is modified. These words usually come first in the phrase, and they are called **Prepositions**.

Let us see what they do for our language that other words will not do.

176. If we wished to show that a clump of trees was the place where some boys were hiding, we might say,—

The boys hid **in** the trees.

The boys hid **among** the trees.

The boys hid **under** the trees.

The boys hid **behind** the trees.

The boys hid **beyond** the trees.

The only difference is in the prepositions **in, under, among**, etc. Read the sentences *without* them, and you will see that nobody could tell what the *trees* had to do with the *hiding*; but *with* the prepositions we see that the word "trees" can be used to modify "hid" in various ways; for it is one thing to hide *under* the trees, another to hide *in* the trees, and so on.

EXERCISE 163.

Select the **phrases** and tell what each one modifies. Thus:—

"From Plymouth" is a phrase used like an adverb to modify the verb "sailed."

1. The Mayflower sailed from Plymouth.
2. Magellan's ship sailed around the globe.
3. Beautiful pearls are found in the sea.
4. The early settlers hunted for gold.
5. The star rested over Bethlehem.
6. The English settled along the coast.
7. We shall return through the valley.
8. My friends will come in the next train.
9. Garfield lived in Ohio during his boyhood.
10. No one should be condemned without a trial.

177. Using a phrase as an adjective, we might say,—

The land **around** the grove.

The shade **of** the grove.

The walk **from** the grove.

The road **to** the grove.

The path **through** the grove.

Here we modify or explain the meaning of the nouns *walk, land, shade*, etc., by referring to the *grove*; but in order to do this we have to use a different preposition in each expression.

178. To show how one word can modify another, or what the meanings of two words have to do with each other, is to show the *relation* between them.

EXERCISE 164.

Select the **phrases** and tell what each one modifies. Thus:—

“Of Rome” is a phrase used as an adjective to modify the noun “city.”

1. The city of Rome is the capital of Italy.
2. The road up the mountain is very rocky.
3. Goods for that firm were shipped yesterday.
4. The planet with the rings is Saturn.
5. Admission to college depends on attainments.
6. The town beyond Lexington is Concord.
7. Success without effort is impossible.
8. The fort near the city was captured first.
9. Icebergs from the Arctic Ocean melt in the Gulf Stream.
10. Journeys into the interior are rarely made.

179. A Preposition is a relation-word used with a noun or a pronoun to make a phrase having the use of an adjective or an adverb.

The word “preposition” means *what is placed before*.

180. The noun or pronoun used with a preposition to make a phrase is called the **Object** of the preposition.

181. A Prepositional Phrase is one that contains a preposition and its object.

EXERCISE 165.

1. Select the **prepositions** in Exs. 163 and 164, and tell between what words each shows the relation. Thus:—

“From” is a preposition, and shows the relation between its object “Plymouth” and the verb “sailed,” which the phrase modifies.

2. Mention the **prepositions** with the object of each, and tell whether the phrase is used as an adjective or an adverb.

1. Birds in great numbers fly over this grove. 2. Some with blue plumage have dropped a handful of feathers for me. 3. Quails from the north meet jays from the south. 4. There are eggs in the nest near the vine. 5. The mother bird is mottled at the throat and along the breast. 6. A bluebird nests under the eaves.

182. Since prepositional phrases can be used wherever an adverb can be, we find them modifying not only nouns, pronouns, and verbs, but *adjectives* and *adverbs* also. Thus:—

He was happy **to excess**, or He was **excessively** happy.

They are ripe **before the time**, or They are **prematurely** ripe.

In other cases it is harder to find what will take the place of the phrase. As:—

This breeze is fresh **from the ocean**.

We are weary **with working**.

Here the four phrases modify adjectives as adverbs would.

EXERCISE 166.

Point out the **prepositional phrases**, and tell whether they modify adjectives or adverbs.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Those trees are heavy with fruit. | 5. She is insane from anxiety. |
| 2. You are too cautious for me. | 6. Shall you be absent from home? |
| 3. The children were happy beyond measure. | 7. We found rosebuds pink at the tips. |
| 4. Always be polite to strangers. | 8. The grass was wet with dew. |

EXERCISE 167.

1. Use these phrases in sentences:—

with him	against it	to you
by her	between us	for whom
after me	behind them	from him

2. Here are the most common prepositions. Use each one in a sentence.

about	around	beyond	of	under
above	at	by	on	unto
across	before	down	over	up
after	behind	for	through	upon
against	below	from	till	with
along	beneath	in	to	within
among	between	into	toward	without

VII. CONJUNCTIONS.

183. We have learned that a preposition connects two other words by showing what one of them has to do with the other.

We come now to words that connect in a different way.

In the sentence, —

The sun sets and the moon appears,

how many verbs are there? What is the subject of each? Read the sentence, omitting the word **and**.

Here, then, are two sentences joined or tied together as one sentence. They might have been printed thus: —

The sun sets. The moon appears.

So we might unite three or more sentences into one; as, —

The sun sets, (and) the moon appears, and the stars come out,

or we might connect two sentences in different ways; as, —

The sun has set, **and** the stars appear.

The sun has set, **for** the stars appear.

The sun has set, **but** the stars appear.

The sun has set, **therefore** the stars appear.

And seems to join the sentences together, as if they were about one subject; **for** shows that one statement gives a reason for making the other; and so on with other words of this sort, such as *but, therefore, or, nor, hence, however*.

184. There are not very many of these words, and as they all connect or *join together* what we say, they are called **Conjunctions**.

They all denote different relations between the expressions they connect, by showing what the connected parts have to do with each other. But, unlike prepositions, they always connect expressions of the same sort.

EXERCISE 168.

What **sentences** have been **united** to make the following?

1. The birds have come and the flowers appear.
2. The ocean is rough for the breakers **roar**.
3. My pears are ripe and I am glad.
4. Some are very large but they are not yellow.
5. You cannot have tried earnestly or you would have succeeded.
6. The sky seems clear yet no stars are visible.
7. We cannot get money nor have we any food.
8. The king must win or he must forfeit his crown forever.

185. Such sentences as the preceding differ from those we have been studying; for they are made up of *two or more simple sentences combined*. Instead of one predicate and the subject of it, they have two or more predicates each with a subject of its own.

EXERCISE 169.

Copy the sentences in the preceding exercise. Place vertical lines before and after each conjunction, and mark each subject and each verb. Enclose adjectives and phrases that modify the subject, in curves; enclose adverbs and phrases that modify the verb, in brackets. Insert the comma where it belongs. Thus:—

(Kind) friends have left us, | but | they will return [soon].

186. Sentences made in this way, by uniting two or more simple sentences, are called **compound**.

187. A *Simple Sentence* is a sentence that contains only *one* subject and *one* predicate.

188. A *Compound Sentence* is one formed by uniting independent sentences.

The sentences united to form a compound sentence are called its *members*.

189. Punctuation. RULE.— *When the members of a compound sentence are connected by a conjunction, they must generally be separated by a comma to show that the conjunction does not join two words. Thus:—*

There were wheels to the cart, **and** the axles were strong.

EXERCISE 170.

Make **compound** sentences by uniting simple ones that have the following words as subjects. **Punctuate** carefully.

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. New York — San Francisco. | 4. lead — cork. |
| 2. horses — camels. | 5. skating — tennis. |
| 3. water — alcohol. | 6. silk — linen. |

190. Conjunctions are used to connect not only sentences, but also words or expressions in the same sentence when they are of the same kind and used in the same way.

1. Two or more *nouns* or *pronouns* may be connected in one sentence; as in,—

Music and painting are fine arts.
Did you ask *him or her or me*?

2. Several *verbs* may be joined together in one sentence; as in,—

Farmers *raise and sell* vegetables for the market.

3. So, too, we may wish to unite two or more *adjectives* or *adverbs* or *phrases* that modify the same word; as in,—

The *dead or dying* soldiers were left behind.
She walks *gracefully and firmly, but very slowly*,
The volume is *in the book-case or on the table*.

EXERCISE 171:

Select the **conjunctions**, telling which words they connect and what kind of words are connected. Thus:—

“**And**” is a conjunction, and connects the two nouns “*time*” and “*tide*.”

1. Time and tide wait for no man.
2. Extreme poverty or great wealth may bring fame.
3. Some trees or shrubs would improve the place.
4. The days come and go in a ceaseless round.
5. Some people always promise, but never pay.
6. Who among you thinks or dreams of me?
7. All men live and die unknown by most of their fellows.
8. She plucked the daisies white and violets blue.
9. Michael Angelo was a painter and sculptor.
10. Now and then the whip-poor-will calls from the hill or the grove.
11. You and I are old and well-tried friends.
12. Shall we spend our time over worthless books and papers, or with the best authors?

191. A Conjunction is a word that connects sentences or parts of sentences.

The word "conjunction" means *that which joins together*.

192. Punctuation. RULE. — *Two or more words or phrases of the same kind used in the same way should be separated by commas, unless conjunctions are used to connect them all.*

Thus:—

Clergymen, lawyers, and doctors preach, argue, or heal.

But in the sentence —

We met them in Pittsburg and in Detroit and in Chicago, each phrase is connected to the following one by a conjunction, and no commas are needed. [See § 165.]

EXERCISE 172.

1. Write simple sentences containing the following groups of words:—

he	fly	red	patient	safely
you	walk	white	firm	quickly
I	swim	blue	kind	pleasantly

2. Write a **complete** sentence in answer to each question. **Punctuate** carefully.

1. Who were the first three presidents of the United States?
 2. What kinds of grain grow in the Mississippi Valley?
 3. What are three of the duties of a sailor?
 4. What must be done to corn in the field before it becomes meal?
 5. Of what materials is cloth made?
-

VIII. INTERJECTIONS.

193. The seven kinds of words that we have now learned to distinguish make up all our sentences: for every word that is really part of a sentence is either a noun, a pronoun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, a preposition, or a conjunction.

There are other words, however, that we use *with* sentences, but not exactly as *parts* of them. They are a different kind of language.

Thus, if any one says —

Oh! you hurt me,

the word **oh** is apt to be very much like a groan. So in —

Aha! I have found you!

aha takes the place of a shout; and in the following sentences,

Pshaw! what a silly reason!

Poh! that's nothing.

He came, **alas!** too late.

the words **pshaw**, **poh**, and **alas** are about as expressive as a hiss, a puff, and a sigh.

194. When we use these words we do not assert anything, and very much of our meaning comes from the tone

in which we speak: but everybody understands at once that we are pained or pleased, and so on, just as we tell by a dog's whining whether he is grieved or delighted.

We must notice, however, that instead of making natural sounds to show our feelings, as animals do, we use words that are somewhat like such sounds, and which mean the same thing.

EXERCISE 173.

Which words would express *feeling*, even if used by themselves?

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|
| 1. Oh! I have ruined my friend! | } | 4. Ho ho! Ahoy! A sail! A sail! |
| 2. O that I were rich again! | | 5. Hurrah! We've won a victory. |
| 3. Ha! Can you not hear it? | | 6. Hist! The squirrel sees you. |

195. Such words are called **Interjections** because they are thrown into the midst of what we say without having much to do with other words.

196. A different sort of interjection is used in expressions like this: —

Bang! There goes another gun!

where the word **bang** is used merely to imitate a noise.

When we wish to represent these words by writing, we spell out the sounds as nearly as we can, just as we write *bow-wow* to represent the bark of a dog.

197. An *Interjection* is an exclamatory word or phrase used to express a feeling or a wish or to imitate some sound.

The word "interjection" means something *that is thrown into the midst of what we say*.

198. Punctuation. RULE. — *An interjection should be followed by an exclamation-point when it expresses very strong emotion, or when there would be a distinct pause in speaking.*

EXERCISE 174.

1. Which of the following interjections can be used to express *joy*? Which to express *disgust*? Which imitate some natural sound?

alas	hurrah	bravo	fie	O dear
pshaw	ahoy	whoa	bollo	ha ha ha

2. Use each of them in a sentence. If written, punctuate carefully.

SUMMARY: THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

199. All the words in our language can be divided into these **eight classes**:—

1. Nouns	} used to <i>name</i>	} are always required to make a sentence.
and		
2. Pronouns	persons or things	
3. Verbs — used to <i>assert</i>		

4. Adjectives	} used only to <i>modify</i>	} may help to form sentences.
and		
5. Adverbs	other words	
6. Prepositions	} used to show the <i>connec-</i>	
and		
7. Conjunctions	<i>tion</i> between other words	

8. Interjections	} used to express <i>feeling</i>	} often stand by themselves.

Speaking of them by kinds or by classes in this way, we call them the eight **Parts of Speech**.

About **Interjections**, however, we must remember that though they help to form our language, they are very different from all the other kinds of words; are not parts of sentences; and are often used by themselves.

CHAPTER XIII.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

A. INCOMPLETE VERBS AND THEIR COMPLEMENTS.

EXERCISE 175.

1. (a) What must the subject of a sentence contain? (b) What must the predicate contain? (c) Define a verb. (d) A verb-phrase. (e) How may verbs be modified?

2. In six of these sentences the meaning is complete. Which are they? Read the remaining six, supplying with each verb what is needed to complete the meaning.

- | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| 1. The wind changed | 5. We must hurry | 9. We were |
| 2. The air is | 6. The ice was | 10. The night has been |
| 3. My friend called | 7. The snow melted | 11. The gale increased |
| 4. The skating will be | 8. Our fun stopped | 12. Such storms are |

3. Which of the verbs would you call *incomplete*? Give your reason.

200. An **Incomplete Verb** is one that requires the addition of another word, called the *complement*, to give the sentence meaning.

EXERCISE 176.

Point out the **verb**, and show what completes the meaning.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Game was scarce. | 5. Our hotel was distant. |
| 2. Our powder was wet. | 6. Our lunch-boxes were empty. |
| 3. We were hungry. | 7. Matters might have been worse. |
| 4. The pond was frozen. | 8. We were not disheartened. |

I. COPULATIVE VERBS.

201. In each of these sentences, —

I am cold.	You are generous.
He was asleep.	He slept.
They were ill.	They suffered.
She is happy.	He smiles.

what is the complete predicate? In those of three words, does the verb or the adjective tell us more about the person mentioned? In those of two words, what describes the person mentioned?

Each of the verbs **slept**, **suffered**, **smiles**, is enough to give us some information; but the verbs —

am, was, were, is, are,

only begin to tell us something that is expressed mostly by the adjectives. Of course there is no assertion without the verb; but in **He was asleep**, the adjective, being the word that describes what the subject names, is so important, that the verb seems *incomplete* without it. The two words together — **was asleep** — are very much like the single verb in **He slept**, for that means about the same thing.

EXERCISE 177.

1. (a) Select the verbs, and tell which of them are modified by adverbs or prepositional phrases. (b) Which are incomplete, and what **complements** are added to them to describe what the subject names?

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Some grapes are sweet. | 8. Delays are often dangerous. |
| 2. They grow in the south. | 9. The crocus blooms in the spring. |
| 3. The wind will be cold. | 10. The early laws were severe. |
| 4. Celluloid is inflammable. | 11. My requests for dismissal have been useless. |
| 5. His remarks were instructive. | 12. The polar regions are uninhabitable. |
| 6. Not all birds are migratory. | |
| 7. The wind sighs plaintively around her grave. | |

2. Copy the preceding sentences, placing under the subject a *wavy* line, under the verb a *straight* line, and under the complement a *straight* line *over* a *wavy* line. Thus:—

Some grapes are sweet.

202. In the sentences, —

The story **seems** doubtful.

The clouds **look** stormy.

we see incomplete verbs that by themselves have a little more meaning than the ones we have been studying, such as — **am, is, are, was, were, will be, have been**, etc.

But even these verbs serve principally to connect or *couple* the subject with something that describes what it names, and so they are all called **Copulative** verbs.

There are not many of them, but they are very frequently used.

203. In the sentences, —

Those men were soldiers.

Boys may be heroes.

Harrisburg is the capital.

Our guide will be an Indian.

what kind of word is added to the verb to describe what the subject names? What two words in each sentence name the same person or thing?

We see that a *noun*, as well as an adjective, may be used with the verb as a sort of second name, to describe what the subject stands for, or to explain what is meant.

204. A noun used as complement with a copulative verb is called a *predicate noun*. [See § 159.]

EXERCISE 178.

1. Point out the **copulative verb** with its subject and complement, telling whether the latter is a noun or an adjective. Thus:—

In the second sentence "was" is the copulative verb, having the noun "trouble" for its subject, and the noun "poverty" for its complement.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The man was poor. | 12. The (cat's) <u>claws</u> were sharp. |
| 2. His trouble was poverty. | 13. Turtles are amphibious. |
| 3. The water of the ocean is salt. | 14. The ship of the desert is the camel. |
| 4. Yonder vessel must be a schooner. | 15. Tigers are carnivorous. |
| 5. Farmers are independent. | 16. Tigers are flesh-eaters. |
| 6. Every barrel seems full. | 17. Henrietta shall be queen. |
| 7. Diamonds are costly. | 18. The boy is the shoemaker's best friend. |
| 8. Pure air is exhilarating. | 19. Idle boys become poor men. |
| 9. Quartz is a mineral. | 20. The sound of the evening bells was sweet. |
| 10. Our friends look anxious. | 21. The night grows dark. |
| 11. The lecture to-morrow will be short. | |

2. Copy those of the preceding sentences that have *nouns* as complements. Underline subject and verb as heretofore, and under the noun complement place a wavy line *over* a straight line. Thus:—

Yonder vessel is a schooner.

205. A *Copulative* verb is one that has a complement that describes what the subject names.

The word "copulative" means *coupling* or connecting.

EXERCISE 179.

Write sentences having the following words as **complements** of copulative verbs. Use the marking as in preceding exercises.

mineral	old-fashioned	fatigued	Frenchman
combustible	mechanic	librarian	skilful
liquid	ingenious	Japanese	patriot

2. TRANSITIVE VERBS.

EXERCISE 180.

1. Try to **complete** the sentences that seem unfinished, and explain why they seem so.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. It is raining | 7. The nests are in the hay |
| 2. Who opened | 8. Yesterday I had a fall |
| 3. We can look for eggs | 9. Somebody fired |
| 4. Come to the barn | 10. I was frightened |
| 5. I will bring | 11. Of course I broke |
| 6. We shall easily find | 12. The fall almost killed |

2. Do any of them lack the verb? What kind of word is needed?

EXERCISE 181.

1. Give the **complete predicate** of each of these sentences :—

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. The bright sun rises. | 7. The trees shed their leaves. |
| 2. The March winds blow. | 8. Farmers sell butter. |
| 3. A robin sings on the bough. | 9. Hail destroys the crops. |
| 4. The lilacs blossom. | 10. The archer bends the bow. |
| 5. The weather was mild. | 11. The ground looks white. |
| 6. The skies are clear. | 12. Our summer is over. |

2. (a) Which of these verbs assert that what the subject names *does* something, or performs some *action*? (b) Which represents the actor as doing something *to* a person or to anything else? (c) What *action* is asserted of the winds? (d) What word in the ninth sentence tells what the hail *does*? (e) What does the hail act *upon*? (f) Who performs the action of bending? (h) What object *receives* the action? (i) What is the object of “shed”? (j) Of “sell”?

EXERCISE 182.

Give the **object** of these verbs; that is, tell the word that shows what receives the action :—

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. I have sold my yacht. | 5. They founded a new nation. |
| 2. He has bought a farm. | 6. The engine has broken a rail. |
| 3. Who wrote the prescription? | 7. Who will take the tickets? |
| 4. The Pilgrims left their native land. | 8. We cannot speak French. |
| | 9. Ask the meaning of the word. |

206. In nearly all the sentences in Ex. 181, the verb

alone gives considerable information about the subject; but yet it would seem very incomplete to say, —

The trees **shed**. Farmers **sell**. Hail **destroys**.

for any one would wait to hear *what* the trees shed, *what* the farmers sell, and so on.

We see, then, that there are still *other* verbs, such as **shed**, **sell**, **destroys**, **bends**, that we must call *incomplete*, since they have so much need of an object to fill out the meaning.

207. *These* verbs assert that some action is performed that passes over to and affects something else. The complement shows who or what it is that receives this action. So they are called **Transitive** — which means “passing over.”

208. We cannot tell whether a verb is transitive or not except by its *use*, for sometimes the verb without an object expresses as much as we wish to say, or else it has a different meaning.

EXERCISE 183.

Tell whether the verb is transitive or intransitive; *i.e.*, whether it has an **object** or not.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. That blind man never saw. | 7. Our national flag flies from the mast-head. |
| 2. I saw my friend on his return. | 8. The schooner in the offing flies a signal of distress. |
| 3. The bells ring merrily over the snow. | 9. The farmer ploughs his fields. |
| 4. The sexton rings the bell. | 10. The ships plough through the waves. |
| 5. The trees sway in the wind. | |
| 6. How the wind sways the trees! | |

209. A *Transitive* verb is one that has a complement showing who or what receives the action.

210. The complement of a transitive verb is called its **Object**.

211. Copulative and transitive verbs are the only ones that always need complements. Most others are complete in themselves.

If we say, —

The sun **rises**. The lilacs **blossom**.

the idea is complete without adding anything; for nobody could ask *what* the sun rises, or *what* the lilacs blossom. The rising or the blossoming does not necessarily affect anything else.

EXERCISE 184.

1. (a) In the following sentences, which verbs assert an action that is **complete** in itself? (b) Which assert actions performed on or **received** by some person or thing? Give their complements.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. The morning dawned. | 5. Perseverance brings success. |
| 2. The bridge fell at noon. | 6. Sugar grows in Louisiana. |
| 3. The choppers fell the trees. | 7. Old Ironsides at anchor lay. |
| 4. The hunter lost the trail. | 8. Many fruits ripen in September. |
9. Our expected friends have arrived.
 10. The angry man should control his passion.
 11. We should hide the faults of others.
 12. The grass withers, and the flowers fade.
 13. Time and tide wait for no man.
 14. The first gun at Sumter aroused the nation.
 15. The melancholy days have come.
 16. The city of Florence contains many palaces.
 17. The farmers sow their seed in the spring.
 18. If you plant in youth, you will reap in age.
 19. He will spend the winter in Spain.
 20. The fire in the woods burned for several days.
 21. A fearful gale blew the ship out of its course.

2. Copy some of the preceding sentences, marking the subject and the verb as before. Under the *object* draw two straight lines; thus, —

The choppers fell the trees.

212. A *Complete* verb is one that requires no complement.

EXERCISE 185.

1. Use the following in sentences, first as **complete** verbs, and then as **transitive** verbs, as in Ex. 183:—

write	set	reap	cheat	give
rides	succeed	learns	lose	sail

2. Select the verbs in Exs. 143 and 146, and tell whether they are *complete*, *copulative*, or *transitive*, and why.

EXERCISE 186.

1. Construct sentences, using the following as subjects of **complete** verbs:—

lightning	war	time	spiders
moon	smoke	clocks	petroleum

2. Use the following as subjects of **transitive** verbs:—

reporters	avalanche	artists	locomotives
electricity	physicians	bankers	earthquakes

3. Use the same words as **objects** of transitive verbs.

4. Write five sentences containing **copulative** verbs with adjectives as complements.

5. Write five with *noun* complements.

3. COMPLEMENTS.

213. We have learned that there are two kinds of complements:—

I. The complement of a *copulative* verb refers to the subject, and is called a **Subjective Complement**.

Any word or phrase that can modify a noun or a pronoun may be a subjective complement; as, —

Some plants are poisonous .	(adjective)
Your friends are musicians .	(noun)
It cannot have been he .	(pronoun)
Time is of great value .	(phrase)

214. II. The complement of a *transitive* verb is the **Object** of it, and has nothing to do with the subject of the sentence, but only with the verb.

(a) Any noun or pronoun may be used with a transitive verb as the object of it.

(b) As adverbs and other expressions modify the verb by answering the questions *how, when, where, etc.*, so the object answers the question *what*. Objects are the most important and necessary kind of modifiers, and this explains why they are called *complements* of the verb.

215. A Complement is what must be added to an incomplete verb to give meaning to the sentence.

EXERCISE 187.

Select the **complements** of the verbs, and tell whether they are *objects* or *subjective complements*; that is, whether they refer to the subject or only modify the verb.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Rivers to the ocean run. | 5. I can find no fault with him. |
| 2. The reason is very plain. | 6. A long rain will be welcome. |
| 3. The stars look very small. | 7. No one is ever too old to learn. |
| 4. Our souls are immortal. | 8. Every day brings its own duties. |
9. Good habits are most easily formed in youth.
 10. We are the heirs of past generations.
 11. A man's actions show his character.
 12. The greatest English poet is Shakespeare.
 13. A rolling stone gathers no moss.
 14. The betrayer of his country is a traitor.
 15. Every man must educate himself.
 16. Agriculture is the parent of all industries.
 17. Mountain chains rob the winds of their moisture.
 18. Wisdom's ways are ways of pleasantness.
 19. The violets open their soft blue eyes.
 20. Of all our senses sight is the most important.
 21. In France and Germany sugar is made from beets.
 22. Despatch is the soul of business.

B. THE BASE OF A SENTENCE.

216. The materials that we must have for making the shortest of sentences are — a **subject** with a noun or a pronoun in it; and a **predicate** with a verb in it.

(a) *Two words* are required; something talked about, and something said; as, —

Night comes. Hope departs. Life ends.
Look you! Who calls?

(b) But when the verb is *incomplete*, that is, when the sentence would be almost meaningless without some other word in the predicate, then *three* words at least are required; as, —

We are children. Youth is hopeful. Love makes friends.

(c) When instead of a verb we have a *verb-phrase*, the number of essential words may be still larger; as, —

Drinking may have caused death.

217. In every simple sentence there are these two or three foundation elements, upon which all the rest is built up, and which we call the **Base**.

218. The **Base of a Sentence**, or what it needs more than anything else to give it meaning, consists either of *two* parts or elements: —

Subject, Complete Verb;

or of *three* parts: —

Subject, Copulative Verb, { **Subjective**
 Complement; or,
Subject, Transitive Verb, Object.

Note. The part of the predicate that is found in the Base may be called the *Basal* or *Simple* Predicate.

EXERCISE 188.

1. Read the base of each sentence, or mark it by underlining its elements in this way:—

Under the **subject** draw a wavy line ~~~~~.

Under the **verb** draw a straight line _____.

Under the **object** draw two straight lines =====.

Under the **subjective complement** draw a straight line with a wavy line —

Under it for **adjectives** ~~~~~;

Over it for **nouns or pronouns** ~~~~~. Thus:—

The sun always shines somewhere.

Your favor will be very acceptable.

1900 will not be a leap-year.

The sentinel stars set their watch in the sky.

1. Our good deeds live after us.
2. Seconds are the gold-dust of time.
3. The orbit of the earth is elliptical.
4. An artist's studio should be his workroom.
5. He mixes his paints on a palette.
6. Vaccination may prevent the small-pox.
7. Most male citizens over twenty-one can vote.
8. At sea the distant clouds seem low.
9. The old mayor climbed the belfry tower.
10. Joan of Arc perished at the stake.
11. Regret for a misspent past will be useless.
12. My workmen were once my employers.
13. A collection of curiosities may become a museum.
14. The miser willed his property to a college.
15. Stone walls do not a prison make.
16. Young hearts never grow old.
17. Foolish people often feel wise.
18. The Muses were the goddesses of art.

2. Treat other exercises in the same way, until the base of a sentence can be recognized and described very readily.

C. MODIFIERS.

EXERCISE 189.

1. What is a sentence? An assertion? What are the essential parts of one?

2. How many and what kinds of words *must* be used to make an assertion?

3. Illustrate from these sentences the meaning of "subject," "verb," "complement," "base," "modifier," and "adjective."

Cowardly men are generally poor soldiers.

These fine steamers now make regular trips.

4. What kind of steamers is meant? Which ones?

5. What words modify the verbs? What word describes the trips?

6. How would you say the subject and the object are modified?

219. Sometimes our sentences consist of only the two or three words that we have called the *base*: but generally we find it necessary *to modify* some part of the base in order to express our meaning exactly.

Thus, instead of "Sheep furnish wool," or "They came," we might wish to say, "*My son's* sheep, *a foreign breed*, furnish wool *of fine quality*," or "They *unexpectedly* came *yesterday* | *from town* | *to welcome us*."

220. Any word or group of words that qualifies another word, or explains its application, is called a **Modifier**.

By adding modifiers to the base, we build up fuller sentences, and it is about the **construction** or **building up of sentences** that we are to study now.

1. ADJECTIVES AS MODIFIERS.

221. We know that the subject, the object, and sometimes the subjective complement, is a *noun* or a *pronoun*, and that adjectives may modify nouns wherever they occur; hence we conclude that—

Adjectives may be added to either the *subject* or the *complement* as modifiers. Thus:—

Australian sheep furnish **fine** wool.

These | **black** sheep furnish **some** | **valuable** wool.

Glass is a **brittle**, **transparent** substance.

EXERCISE 190.

1. (a) **Classify** each sentence; that is, tell its kind. (b) Read the **base**. (c) Point out the **subject** and its **modifiers**. (d) Point out the **verb**. (e) Point out the **complement**, tell its **kind**, and give its **modifiers**. Thus:—

The first is a simple, assertive sentence. Its base is *dogs respect masters*. The subject *dogs* is modified by the adjective *savage*. The verb is *respect*. The object *masters* is modified by the adjective *stern*.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Savage dogs respect stern masters. | 8. An uncontrolled appetite is a relentless master. |
| 2. Coming events cast long shadows. | 9. The Polish salt mines seem inexhaustible. |
| 3. Has any man a heavy coat? | 10. The longest day has an end. |
| 4. Take the broad, open path. | 11. Your barking dogs are cowardly. |
| 5. Such long journeys are tiresome. | 12. Destructive freshets have injured the late crops. |
| 6. A low barometer indicates stormy weather. | 13. Is that snow-capped mountain an extinct volcano? |
| 7. Hidden fire makes black smoke. | 14. Tell no long stories. |

2. Copy the preceding sentences, and mark the base as before. Enclose each subject-modifier in curves (), and each complement modifier in angles < >.¹ Thus:—

(These) sheep have <long> horns.

¹ To the Teacher.—This simple method of marking the analysis of sentences will be found very useful in ordinary written work, as well as in illustrative blackboard exercises.

Every subject is to be marked with a *wavy* line, every verb with a *straight* line. The complement is always marked with *two* lines,—both also *straight* for the object, since that modifies only the verb; but *one* of them *wavy* for the subjective complement,

3. Write sentences to show the use of adjectives *as part of the base*.
 4. Write six that illustrate their use *as modifiers* of different parts of the base.

2. ADVERBS AS MODIFIERS.

222. Besides a noun or a pronoun, the base of a sentence always, as we know, contains a *verb*, and it sometimes contains an *adjective* as the complement of the verb. We know, too, that if a verb or an adjective needs a modifier to finish the meaning, an **Adverb** may be used. *E.g.*:—

The man approached **cautiously**.
 Children **sometimes** make mistakes.

where the *verbs* are modified; and —

Some pine trees are **perfectly** straight.
 The old elm was **almost** dead.

where the *adjective complements* are modified.

EXERCISE 191.

1. Point out the **principal parts** of each sentence and their **modifiers**, as in the preceding exercise.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. All the bells ring mournfully. | 8. He probably came here lately. |
| 2. Some faces look very sad. | 9. Those stories are hardly credible. |
| 3. The whistle always shrieks wildly. | 10. The sun always shines brightly somewhere. |
| 4. The summons is quite welcome. | 11. Most early navigators were very venturesome. |
| 5. This spot is delightfully cool. | 12. I have been too idle heretofore. |
| 6. Such bright days rarely come. | |
| 7. The officers were criminally negligent. | |

since that is not only a part of the predicate, but is also related to the subject. The predicate noun is distinguished from the predicate adjective by placing the *wavy line* first.

Every subject-modifier of whatever kind is to be enclosed in *curves* (), every verb-modifier in *brackets* [], and every complement-modifier in *angles* { }.

Independent expressions are to be left unmarked.

2. Copy each sentence, underline the base, and mark the modifiers. Put verb-modifiers in brackets []. Thus:—

(Those) ships [frequently] make (long) voyages.

We are [never] (entirely) alone.

3. Write four sentences illustrating the use of adverbs as *modifiers* of different parts of the base.

3. ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB-PHRASES.

223. We have built up a sentence by modifying the base with adjectives and adverbs. The next step will be to give to these added words *modifiers of their own*.

Thus, instead of *high, always, and many*, in —

High winds always injure many trees,

we may modify each with an adverb (§§ 171, 172), and say, —

Unusually high winds almost always destroy very many trees.

Here it is easy to see that “destroy,” for instance, is modified not by **always** alone, but by the phrase **almost always**, since the adverb **almost** is added to show that we do not mean *quite* always.

How is “winds” modified? “Trees”? Does **very many** take the place of an adjective or an adverb? What may adverbs modify?

(a) These little *phrases* (“unusually high,” etc.) are used as modifiers very much like single words; and when a noun or a verb has several modifiers, some of them may be words and some phrases. Thus:—

Some | large | thrifty | rather graceful | trees.

They unexpectedly came slowly and very quietly

EXERCISE 192.

1. Give the **base** of each sentence and its **modifiers**. Select the modifiers that are phrases, and tell whether they are like **adjectives** or like **adverbs**.

1. Very few persons are perfectly happy.
2. We beheld the dark blue sky.
3. Will forgetful boys become good business men?
4. He displayed intensely disagreeable manners.
5. Hereafter I shall study more diligently.
6. Some rather dull boys have become very famous men.

2. Copy, and mark the base and modifiers. Thus:—

(This) (same) person [very recently] made ⟨a⟩ ⟨rather tiresome⟩ speech.

3. Write four sentences containing **modified adjectives** and **modified adverbs**.

224. 1. An adjective with all that modifies it is called an **Adjective phrase**.

2. An adverb with all that modifies it is called an **Adverb-phrase**.

(a) When an adjective or an adverb takes a modifier *of any sort*, we have a phrase; as, beautiful in color, suitable for driving, where an adjective is modified by a prepositional phrase (§ 225); also, a little cautiously, ten feet further, where an adverb is modified by a noun-phrase (§ 308).

4. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

225. There are several other kinds of modifying expressions which have the meaning and use of adjectives and adverbs.

226. A **Prepositional Phrase** may always be used like an adjective or adverb. Thus:—

As part of the *base*, like a predicate adjective:

Our utensils were of wood (= wooden).

These savages are from Africa (= African).

As modifiers :

The low mountains (*of Vermont*) contain marble.

The layers, or beds, extend [*for miles*].

They show great difference (*in color*).

I am happy (*beyond measure*).

Burns was a man (*of genius*).

What part of the base does each phrase modify? What modifiers are there besides the phrases?

EXERCISE 193.

1. Copy, underline the **base**, and mark the **modifiers**, as in preceding exercises.

1. The boyhood of Lincoln was spent in poverty.
2. The path of industry is the path to success.
3. The needle of the compass may not always point toward the north.
4. The invention of letters was attributed to the Phœnicians.
5. The Queen of Sheba saw the wisdom of Solomon.
6. Twenty slaves were brought to Virginia in 1619.
7. Lincoln emancipated the slaves in 1863.
8. The weight of evidence is against you.
9. A dull, heavy cloud of vapor hangs gloomily in the sky above our heads.

2. How many words are **needed** to make a prepositional phrase? Of what kind must they be? In the ninth sentence, how many modifiers has "cloud"? How many has "hangs"?

227. Modified Prepositional Phrases. The *base* of the phrase, that is, the preposition with its object alone, does not always make a *complete* modifier, any more than does an adjective or an adverb alone. Thus:—

"*Wise men*" means the same as "*men of wisdom*," but "**very wise men**" would mean "*men of great wisdom*," a modifier being added to the object. So too in "*The state is rich in forests of pine*" the object in the phrase "*in forests*" is modified by another phrase "**of pine**."

228. These examples show how the object of a preposition may be modified; and we must remember that a noun *may always have modifiers*, no matter how or where it is used.

(a) A modifier of any part of the base may be called a *primary* modifier; a modifier of what is already a modifier may be called a *secondary* modifier.

EXERCISE 194.

1. Give the **base** of each phrase; *i.e.*, the leading **preposition** and its **object**, and tell how each object is modified.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| 1. in the near future. | 7. along the shores of the broad Pacific. |
| 2. without many friends. | 8. near the sources of the longest river of Africa. |
| 3. after very long delay. | 9. after a cold, cheerless journey in the rain. |
| 4. with few signs of failure. | 10. two mounds of snow between. |
| 5. the icy, rattling crags among. | |
| 6. in the centre of the solar system. | |

2. Write six sentences in which prepositional phrases are used to modify the *three* different parts of the base.

Changes of Form to Modify Meaning.

EXERCISE 195.

1. In the expression —

a tree surrounded by trees,

would you say that the same noun occurs twice, or that there are two nouns almost alike? What difference do you see? Is there a difference in sound? What is the difference in meaning?

2. Select the forms in this list that are used when **only one** is meant:—

cloud	man	horses	stage	rose
feet	children	foot	judges	monkeys
fly	knives	flies	clock	pen
flood	rivers	men	fire	monks

3. Which of them are used when we speak of **more than one**?

229. We see from the preceding exercise that a noun may be modified not only by adding a word, but also **by changing its form** according as it applies to one or to more than one.

One form is called the **Singular**, because it applies to a *single* one only. The other form is called the **Plural**, because it applies to *more* than one. Thus:—

SINGULAR: head, eye, face, dress, foot.

PLURAL: heads, eyes, faces, dresses, feet.

230. The **Plural** is generally made by adding **s** or **es** to the singular.

EXERCISE 196.

About each of the following words say whether it is **singular** or **plural**, and then give the other form:—

vane	basin	halves	children	Germans
sponges	potato	taxes	turkeys	pailfuls
mason	niece	sheaves	grass	nephew
swords	crutch	mosquitoes	women	dishes
brushes	lilies	glasses	kisses	geese
matches	oxen	men	knives	chimneys

5. POSSESSIVES: MODIFIERS OF ANOTHER KIND.

231. Sometimes a word is adjective *by nature*, like those we have been studying; but a word that seems to be something else may be also adjective *by use*.

In these sentences —

Edward's bicycle has just broken down.

They heard the horse's hoofs,

Your yacht was in the race,

can you find any words *used* like adjectives? Do they seem at all like nouns or verbs? To whom did the bicycle belong? What hoofs were heard? Who owned the yacht?

232. Such words as **Edward's, horse's, your** are called **Possessives** because, if the statements just made are true, we can say —

Edward had, or “possessed,” a bicycle,
 The horse had, or “possessed,” hoofs,
 You had, or “possessed,” a yacht,

and we see that they are really *nouns* or *pronouns* changed a little from the common form, and *used like adjectives* to describe the thing mentioned by showing to whom or to what it belongs.

EXERCISE 197.

1. Mention all the **possessives**, and tell what nouns they modify:—

1. England's navy is very powerful.
2. Men's good deeds may live forever.
3. Children's manners show their training.
4. Napoleon ended his days at St. Helena.
5. We decorate her grave with flowers.
6. Your money will be used for soldiers' monuments.
7. Is there a proverb about kings' daughters?
8. Greenland's warm climate is its greatest treasure.
9. Winter's rude tempests are gathering now.
10. Wisdom's ways are ways of pleasantness.
11. You'll find hornets' nests there.
12. Does Ecuador's largest coin equal our double eagle?

2. Change the possessive nouns to **prepositional phrases**, thus:—

“Greenland's climate” means “The climate of Greenland.”

3. **Analyze** the sentences by marking base and modifiers.

233. To make the possessive form, *nouns* commonly take an apostrophe and s [*'s*]; but if an *s* has already been added to make the word plural, they take only an apostrophe [*'*]. [The *pronouns* are changed in various ways: **you, your; they, their; he, his; I, my; she, her, etc.**]

EXERCISE 198.

Give the **possessive** form of each noun. To which should you add only an apostrophe? Why?

fox	ox	Charles	Mary	Frances
foxes	oxen	James	Rufus	Agnes
armies	man	Mrs. Jones	scissors	valley
army	men	thief	Mr. Davis	valleys
calves	wives	thieves	Miss Kelly	heroes
calf	wife	sister	torches	children
lady	mice	sisters	monarch	mouse
ladies	sheaf	fishes	jury	brothers

234. A *Possessive* is a special form of a noun or a pronoun used like an adjective to show *whose* property is meant. [§ 295.]

6. APPOSITIVES: NOUNS USED AS SECOND NAMES.

235. Another sort of modifier appears in this example:

This man is James Hooper, treasurer.

The nouns **James Hooper** and **treasurer** evidently refer to the same person, and we understand that James Hooper *is treasurer*. So, speaking of two men *who are machinists*, we might say:—

Hardy and Greene, machinists, have just failed.

EXERCISE 199.

In the following sentences:—

My brother Rudolphus is coming home.

I, William, am to be married.

William Shakespeare, poet, died in 1616.

William Shakespeare, confectioner, lives in D street.

We had reached that great wheat market, Chicago.

what word shows which brother is meant? Which show who is meant by "William Shakespeare"? By "I"? In the fifth find two names for one thing

236. A noun is often added to another noun to describe or explain its meaning, when one name is not enough.

The noun thus added is called an **appositive**, and is just as much a modifier as an adjective is, though, unlike an adjective, it almost always *follows* the word it modifies.

The word *appositive* means "put by the side of."

EXERCISE 200.

1. Select the **appositives**, and tell to what words they refer.

1. The historian Macaulay wrote "The Lays of Ancient Rome."
2. The river Nile overflows its banks annually.
3. The seventh month, July, was named in honor of Julius Cæsar.
4. The children's favorite was the monster elephant, "Jumbo."
5. The New England festival, Thanksgiving, comes in November.
6. The capital of New Hampshire, Concord, is on the Merrimac.
7. We boys have neglected our lessons.
8. She advised us girls to be patient.
9. You carpenters have a busy life.

2. Make sentences, using the first five appositives as **subjects modified by appositives**.

237. An *Appositive* is a second name added to a noun or a pronoun to explain or describe what is meant.

7. POSSESSIVE AND APPOSITIVE PHRASES.

238. Possessive and appositive phrases will be easy for us to understand because, like adjective and adverb phrases, they are only possessives and appositives, with their modifiers.

239. We must remember that possessives and appositives are only *used* like adjectives; they are not what we *call* adjectives, but are really nouns or pronouns. Hence

they have the same modifiers that other nouns and pronouns have.

Thus, instead of *girl's hair*, we might wish to speak of

This young Japanese *girl's hair*,

using a possessive phrase in which the adjectives **this**, **young**, and **Japanese** all modify the possessive *girl's*.

So with appositives:—

My companion, **an old friend from Ohio**, was very entertaining.

Here **an**, **old**, and **from Ohio** are added to the appositive as secondary modifiers.

EXERCISE 201.

1. Tell which phrases in the following are **appositive**, and which **possessive**; and give the modifiers in each phrase.

1. Charles Dickens, the great English novelist, died in 1870.
2. The Moon, the satellite of the Earth, is about two thousand miles in diameter.
3. In 1807, Robert Fulton, an American engineer, sailed the first steamboat, the *Clermont*, on the Hudson.
4. Benjamin Franklin, a distinguished American statesman, was born in Boston in 1706.
5. Who would disregard a loving mother's counsel?
6. The brave colonel's reply was, "I'll try, sir."
7. Whittier, the Quaker poet, wrote *Snow Bound*, a *Winter Idyl*.
8. Nathaniel Hawthorne, author of *The Marble Faun*, was born in Salem, a city in Massachusetts.
9. Cortez, the conqueror of Mexico, was a Spaniard.
10. Remember your last year's experiences.
11. This is a debt of many years' standing.
12. Now comes the morning star, day's harbinger.

2. **Analyze** the preceding sentences by copying and marking.

240. Punctuation. RULE.—*Appositive words and phrases must generally be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.*

For examples, see preceding exercises.

EXERCISE 202.

Make sentences containing these words **modified by appositive words or phrases.**

Gen. Grant	Harrisburg	author	Chicago
steamboat	David	inventor	Amazon

SUMMARY: MODIFIERS.

241. We now understand how it is that a simple sentence may be very long; for we must often modify a word again and again before we can express exactly what we mean.

The *simplest modifiers for each part of speech* are given below. [See §§ 620, 621.]

Nouns and Pronouns may have for modifiers, —

1. **An Adjective** { **word:** *Kind* hearts are more than coronets.
phrase: This is an *extremely interesting* book.
2. **A Prepositional phrase:** The *life* of Livingstone was *one of self-sacrifice*.
3. **A Possessive** { **word:** *His* energy was *his* only capital.
phrase: *Every man's* work shall be manifest.
4. **An Appositive** { **word:** The *poet* Milton was blind.
phrase: *Homer, the Greek poet,* was blind.

Verbs, Adjectives, and Adverbs may have for modifiers, —

1. **An Adverb** { **word:** He *gives* *twice* who *gives* *quickly*.
phrase: *Shall* we not *strive* *more* *constantly*?
2. **A Prepositional phrase:** *Look* not *mournfully* *into the past*.

The other parts of speech are very rarely modified.

CHAPTER XIV.

SENTENCE-ANALYSIS.

REVIEW EXERCISE. 203.

1. Mention the three classes into which sentences are divided according to meaning. 2. What is a simple sentence? 3. A compound sentence? 4. Into what may every compound sentence be separated? 5. Every simple sentence? 6. Into what may every enlarged subject be separated? 7. Every enlarged predicate? 8. Name the *two* elements that may form the base of a sentence. 9. The *three* elements. 10. What parts of speech may form a complement? 11. What is a modifier?

242. While studying the building up of sentences we have had some practice in **Analysis**, or the taking apart of sentences; for we have pointed out their principal parts, and have shown how each is modified.

243. *Analysis* is the process of separating a sentence into its parts, and of showing what they have to do with one another.

244. Method. If, in analyzing a simple or a compound sentence, we treat modifying phrases as single words, the structure of it can be made clear either orally or in writing, by telling in this order —

1. The **kind** of sentence.
2. The kind of sentences **united to form it**.
3. The **base** of the *first* assertion, question, or command.
4. The **subject** and its **modifiers**.
5. The **verb** and its **modifiers**.
6. The **complement** and its **modifiers**.
7. The **base** of the *second*, — **subject, verb, complement**
8. The **conjunctions**.
9. The **independent expressions**.

Model for Analysis. "*A fool speaks all his mind, but a wise man reserves something for hereafter.*"

1. This is a **compound assertive** sentence,
2. Formed by uniting **two simple** assertions.
3. The **base** of the first assertion is *fool speaks mind*.
4. The **subject** *fool* is modified by the adjective *a*.
5. The **verb** *speaks* is modified only by its object *mind*.
6. The **object** *mind* is modified by the adjective *all*, and by the possessive *his*.
7. The **base** of the second assertion is *man reserves something*.
8. The **subject** *man* is modified by the adjectives *a* and *wise*.
9. The **verb** *reserves* is modified by the prepositional phrase *for hereafter*.
10. The **object** *something* is unmodified.
11. The **conjunction** *but* unites the two assertions.

245. A phrase may be analyzed by telling —

1. Its **kind**.
2. What it **modifies**.
3. Its **base** (*i.e.* the word from which it is named, and the complement of it, if there is one).
4. The **modifiers** of the **base**.

Thus, in the sentence —

De Soto (the discoverer of the Mississippi) was buried [in its waters], —

we may say that *the discoverer of the Mississippi* is —

1. An **appositive** phrase,
2. **Modifying** the noun *De Soto*.
- 3 and 4. The **base** *discoverer* is modified by the adjective *the* and by the prepositional phrase *of the Mississippi*.

246. A simple form of written analysis is that already given on page 138. Thus: —

(A) fool speaks <all> <his> mind, | but | (a) (wise) man reserves something [for hereafter].
+

247. Secondary modifiers may be joined to what they modify by lines, straight or curved, an arrow-head showing the modified word. Thus:—

[During the distress of-the-American-army], Richard Venable,
 (an army commissioner), took [from James Hook, a Scotchman],
 (two) steers [for the use of-the-troops].

Inverted Order.

248. Although the form and the meaning of the words that make a sentence help us to understand the construction of it, yet we depend chiefly upon the **arrangement** of its parts, which is commonly much the same in different sentences.

The usual order, however, is often changed or **inverted** for the sake of emphasis or clearness, and, in poetry, for many other reasons.

EXERCISE 204.

1. Where is a *complement* usually placed? 2. What is the usual position of the *modifiers of a verb*? Give examples. 3. Does an *adjective* generally precede its noun or follow it? 4. Are *possessives* and *appositives* used before or after the words they modify? 5. What modifiers may an adjective have? Give examples to show the usual order. 6. When one *adverb* modifies another where is it placed? 7. Where are *prepositions* and *conjunctions* placed?

249. The **subject** often follows the **verb**—

(a) In assertive sentences, as:—

Flashed all their sabres bare. Dark was the night. Fiercely blew the wintry wind. Down the hillside ran a brook. There was a dense fog. There is no help for us.

(b) In interrogative sentences, especially when the interrogative word forms no part of the subject; as in,—

Were others present? Whom did you see? When shall we be free? Which island do the French own? For what are they contending? Is there no hope?

Such sentences of course almost always begin with the interrogative expression, whether pronoun, adjective, adverb, or prepositional phrase.

(c) In sentences expressing a condition or a wish, like, —

Were that to happen, I could not go. May nothing prevent. May there be enough for all.

As shown in these examples, it is not the verb that is ordinarily put first in inverted sentences, but rather some complement or modifier of it, if there is one. And, as shown in the last examples in each group, we frequently begin a sentence with the adverb “**there**,” when it is pronounced **ther**, and used without much of its original meaning.

When the real subject follows the verb, the temporary subject “**it**” often precedes; as, **It is best to wait.** (§ 598 (a).)

EXERCISE 205.

1. **Read** each sentence, and show by your pronunciation of “*there*” whether it means “in that place,” or has no definite meaning.

2. **Transpose**, putting the subject first, without changing the pronunciation of “*there*.”

1. There goes the new boat. 2. There the pilot stands to watch her. 3. There will be no sorrow there. 4. There stood my old friend. 5. There are a thousand here. 6. There was darkness over all the land. 7. There can be no success without effort.

250. When there is reason for the change, **modifiers** of almost every kind may be placed in inverted order, or they may be separated from that part of the sentence to which they belong; *e.g.*: —

A maiden fair. And I **the victor** slew. Lean thou this staff upon. **Slowly** the day declines. **For us** the sun ne’er sets.

In analysis, we must be careful to **transpose** every part to its more usual place.

(a) When modified by a phrase, an adjective usually follows its noun. Thus, we say, "a man ready for work," not "a ready for work man."

EXERCISE 206.

1. Read each of the following sentences, **transpose** into the usual order, and explain what changes you make.

2. Copy, and analyze by marking thus:—

[Up the hill] (his) horse he [hotly] urged.

1. Here ends the tale. 2. Many are our faults. 3. A mighty king was he. 4. Of years ago I'm dreaming. 5. The queen hath him offended. 6. Of many men the names he knew. 7. To pastures new press we now eagerly on. 8. Within my garden bloomed a lily tall. 9. Through the dark defile wound the long battalion slowly. 10. Here once the embattled farmers stood. 11. Lightly from bough to bough fluttered the birds in the tree-tops. 12. A vision bright at dead of night I saw. 13. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

EXERCISE 207.

1. Read and **transpose** as in Ex. 206.

2. Copy and make a **written analysis** as in § 244.

1. Somewhere the birds are singing evermore.
2. Pleasantly rose the sun on the village of Grand-Pré.
3. Under the spreading chestnut-tree
The village smithy stands.
4. Down the broad valley, fast and far,
The troubled army fled.
5. There wandered a noble Moslem boy
Through the scene of beauty in breathless joy
6. Safely through another week
God has brought us on our way
7. Softly now the light of day
Fades upon my sight away.

EXERCISE 208.

Analyze the following sentences in full, orally, in writing, or by marking:—

1. The human body is a study for one's whole life.
2. Betwixt eyes and nose a strange contest arose.
3. The streams of small pleasures fill the lake of happiness.
4. The fate of empires depends upon the education of youth.
5. How use doth breed a habit in a man!
6. The first and greatest end of education is the discipline of the mind.
7. In the course of our reading we should lay up in our minds a store of goodly thoughts in well-wrought words.
8. The robin and the bluebird fill all the blossoming orchards with their glee, and the joyous skylark gives out a flood of song among the clouds.
9. Here rest the great and good in lowly graves.
10. Many persons have no ear for music; but every one has an ear for skilful reading.
11. The ruby-throated humming-bird—the loveliest one of the whole family—is a native of the Southern States.
12. On the quarter-deck of the flag-ship stood Admiral Sir John Narborough, the first seaman in all England.
13. In the market-place of Bruges stands the belfry old and brown.
14. Study wisdom, and you will reap pleasure.
15. Laziness grows on people; it begins in cobwebs, and it ends in iron chains.
16. Among the pitfalls in our way
The best of us walk blindly.
17. Duty points, with outstretched fingers,
Every soul to action high.
18. Oft on the trampling band, from crown
Of some tall cliff, the deer look down.
19. Silently, one by one, in the infinite meadows of heaven,
Blossomed the lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the angels.
20. Hands of angels, unseen by mortal eyes, shifted the scenery of the heavens; the glories of night dissolved into the glories of the dawn.

CHAPTER XV.

NOUNS.

REVIEW EXERCISE. 209.

1. What is a noun? 2. If a word stands as subject of a sentence, to what parts of speech may it belong? 3. What if it is the object of a verb or of a preposition? 4. What do you call a word that is modified by an adjective? 5. How do you tell whether a word is a noun or not?

6. What kinds of words or phrases may modify a noun? 7. Use "store" as the subject of a sentence, and give it two or three modifiers. 8. Use "president" as an object, and modify it by a prepositional phrase and an appositive.

A. KINDS.

1. PROPER NOUNS.

251. We cannot always use nouns correctly in sentences, without having some regard to the classes into which they are divided according to their *meaning*.

EXERCISE 210.

1. (a) Does the name "gulf" always stand for the same body of water? (b) To how many parts of a year may the word "month" apply? (c) To how many does the word "April" apply?

2. About each of the following nouns say whether it may represent *any one of several* things, or is meant to be the special name of one individual.

river	Amazon	city	Berlin
mountain	Vesuvius	ocean	Atlantic
continent	Africa	dog	Bruno
orator	Webster	month	August
holiday	Christmas	book	<i>Jo's Boys</i>

3. (a) Which word in each of the following groups applies to the greatest number? (b) Which to the least? (c) Which are names for every one of a certain class? (d) Which are "given names"? (e) Name another individual of each class.

man	soldier	animal	gentleman
author	officer	quadruped	scholar
poet	general	elephant	teacher
Bryant	Sheridan	Jumbo	Dr. Arnold

252. Some nouns, such as "man" or "water," represent a thing as *being of a certain kind* or class, without showing which particular one or which part is meant. Other nouns are names given to designate *a particular individual*.

Thus the noun *man* may apply to any one of millions of persons, but the name **William E. Gladstone** applies to one person only. The name *city* is held in common by hundreds of places, because they are in some respects alike; but **Philadelphia, Chicago, Boston**, are names given to certain cities, to be, as it were, their exclusive *property*.

253. A name held in common by all of a kind is called a **Common noun**; and a special name given to one individual *for its own* is called a **Proper noun**.

"Proper" is derived from a word meaning *one's own*.

254. **Common nouns**, such as *clock, kitchen, tree, glass, putty, oysters, weight, writing, mercy*, have meanings that **describe** things and show what they are **by nature**.

Proper nouns, as we use them, have no longer any meaning in themselves, and like the word *Dick*, which may name a horse, a man, a boy, a dog, or a bird, they serve **only to designate one person, place, or thing**.

We can judge by looking at an object what *common* nouns to apply to it; but if it has a *proper* name, that must be learned in some other way.

EXERCISE 211.

1. Tell which of these nouns are **common** and which **proper**:—

King	Solomon	Temper	Music	Paris
Rome	Eagle	Shasta	Noise	Samuel
Ocean	Peru	Mitchell	Piano	Riches
War	Beauty	Warden	Mozart	Merey
Christian	Turk	Italian	Democrat	Saint

2. Does the last word in each column show *what sort* of person is meant? If so, these words are common nouns.

255. A Proper Noun is a special name meant for only one individual.

All other nouns are *common* nouns.

256. A Common Noun is a general name for any or all of a certain kind.

257. Capitals. RULE. — *Proper nouns and words formed from them must begin with capitals.*

(a) *When a proper name is made up of several parts, each one must begin with a capital. Thus:—*

John Greenleaf Whittier; the Duke of Brunswick.

EXERCISE 212.

1. Write the special or **proper** names of several individuals in each of the following classes:—

River; town; volcano; governor; king; author; country; planet; queen; dog; historian; state; yacht; month; painter; poet; capital; president; book; inventor.

2. What are the people called who live in the following places? Thus:—

“Canada,” Canadians; “Genoa,” Genoese.

Canada; Genoa; Cuba; Spain; Venice; Italy; Europe; Mexico; Brazil; Burmah; China; Japan; Malta; Norway; Boston.

2. GENDER-NOUNS.

258. Among the nouns that name *living beings*, many names show to which **sex** a person belongs; as, —

Edward, Mary, Margaret;

and we sometimes find two nouns with no difference in meaning, except that one of them denotes a **male** and the other a **female**; as, —

prince, princess; son, daughter; John, Jane.

259. All such nouns are called **Gender-nouns**, because they show *which sex* is meant. Those that by their form denote males are said to be **masculine**, or of the masculine gender; those that denote females are said to be **feminine**, or of the feminine gender.

260. (a) Sometimes the correlative gender-nouns are similar in form, the feminine ending in **-ess**. Thus: —

abbot, abbess;	governor, governess;	master, mistress;
actor, actress;	heir, heiress;	negro, negress;
baron, baroness;	host, hostess;	priest, priestess;
count, countess;	Jew, Jewess;	prince, princess;
duke, duchess;	lad, lass [<i>contracted</i>];	prophet, prophetess;
emperor, empress;	lion, lioness;	shepherd, shepherdess;
god, goddess;	marquis, marchioness;	tiger, tigress.

261. (b) Some words from foreign languages are changed in other ways. Thus: —

administrator, administratrix;	hero, heroine;	Francis, Frances;
bean, belle;	sultan, sultana;	Henry, Henrietta;
czar, czarina;	testator, testatrix;	Joseph, Josephine;
executor, executrix;	Augustus, Augusta;	Louis, Louisa;
	Charles, Charlotte;	Paul, Paulina.

262. (c) Sometimes the feminine is a wholly different word from its corresponding masculine. Thus: —

bachelor, maid;	lord, lady;	stag, hind;
earl, countess;	monk or friar, nun;	wizard, witch;
king, queen;	sir, madam;	youth, maiden.

In *widower, widow*, the masculine is made from the feminine.

263. (*d*) Sometimes the **first part** of a compound word serves merely to show which sex is meant. Thus:—

he-goat, she-bear, man-servant.

264. (*e*) With most nouns, however, the same form is used for both sexes, and words like *poet, editor, doctor, author*, may refer to a person of either sex, just as do *parent, child, friend, cousin*.

EXERCISE 213.

1. (*a*) Which of the following nouns do not show sex? (*b*) Tell whether the gender-nouns are **masculine** or **feminine**, and give the corresponding word of opposite gender, if there is one.

Cousin; clerk; Edward; duchess; president; bridegroom; printer; empress; cashier; peacock; child; cook; czar; lass; widow; secretary; sultana; servant; nun; artist; spinster; aunt; goose; abbot; maiden; husband; roe; hen; landlord; laundress.

2. Give as many general names as you can for **relatives** of both sexes; as, *uncle, aunt*.

265. A **Gender-noun** is one that shows by its form which sex is meant.

3. COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

EXERCISE 214.

1. What is the difference between a soldier and an army? **2.** A ship and a fleet? **3.** A singer and a choir? **4.** Of what is a jury made up? **5.** A flock? **6.** A school?

266. Some nouns, even in the singular form, may be plural in meaning, and are called **Collective nouns**, because they denote a collection of individuals.

EXERCISE 215.

Fill the blanks so as to show *of what* each collection is composed:—

1. A regiment of —.
2. A crew of —.
3. A swarm of —.
4. A herd of —.
5. The Senate contains —.
6. A family of —.
7. A team of —.
8. A pair of —.
9. A club of —.
10. A troop of —.
11. — in the constellation.
12. — on the committee.
13. — in the tribe.
14. — in the pack.

267. A *Collective Noun* is one that even in the singular form denotes a number of separate persons or things.

EXERCISE 216.

1. Define each word so as to show that it is a collective noun:—

Group; class; council; hive; multitude; jury; fleet; flock; mob; society; band; drove; couple; bevy; gang; horde; corps; suite.

4. ABSTRACT NOUNS.

268. Of the many classes of nouns three that we have studied,—proper, collective, and gender nouns,—are the only ones that may affect the form of what we write. It is well, however, to know about another important class.

269. Nouns of this class apply to **what cannot take up room, or be weighed, or touched, or moved.** Thus:—

Motion, movement, hurry, race, speed, distance, absence.

Beauty, color, freshness, brilliancy, gleam, warmth.

Harmony, music, tune, discord, sound, disturbance, war.

They are called **Abstract nouns** because they are names of qualities, etc., considered *separately* from the objects to which they belong.

“Abstract” means *drawn off, separated*.

270. Kinds. Of the many kinds of abstract nouns, the most important are—

1. Nouns that name a *quality* or a *condition*; as,—

brightness, poverty, pride, weight, flexibility.

2. Verbal nouns, which name the *action* asserted by a verb; as,—

learning, rejoicing, loving, to swing, to skate.

EXERCISE 217.

1. Select from this list five words that may be names of **actions** ten names of **qualities** or **conditions**.

weakness	industry	hoping	speed	fear
despair	temperance	heat	slumber	hunger
singing	haste	reading	dashing	coasting

2. Name four **qualities** or **conditions** of—

wood	gold	an explorer	a good son
air	water	a gymnast	a great man
camels	music	a miser	an agreeable companion

271. An *Abstract Noun* is the name of a quality, a condition, or an action.

EXERCISE 218.

1. Into what **two classes** may all nouns be divided? Name three kinds of **common nouns**.

2. There are five nouns of a kind in the following list. Which of them are **proper nouns**? Which **collective**? Arrange the rest in two groups according as they are **gender** or **abstract nouns**.

Maryland; Great Bear; legislature; Eliot; Frenchman; Englishman; skill; widower; humility; audience; monk; slavery; Quito; knowledge; brigade; bevy; suite; Thursday; marching; duck.

B. INFLECTION:

CHANGES IN FORM FOR DIFFERENT USES.

272. Besides using adjectives or other modifiers to show just what a word represents, it is often necessary to *change the form* of the word according to its different uses or applications; *i.e.*, to **inflect** it.

1. NUMBER.

273. The most common change in the form of a noun is that by which we express **Number**. [See p. 144.]

274. Most nouns have two number-forms, the *singular* and the *plural*.

The *singular* number denotes only one.

The *plural* number denotes more than one.

275. RULE I. — *Most nouns are made plural by adding s to the singular.* Thus:—

chair	valley	zero	gulf	fife	monarch	German
chairs	valleys	zeros	gulfs	fifes	monarchs	Germans

276. RULE II. — *Letters, figures, signs, etc., are made plural by adding 's.* Thus:—

Do not make your **r's** and **v's** alike. Cancel the **9's**. Make the **+'s** and **—'s** larger.

EXERCISE 219.

1. (a) Is the number of syllables always the same in both singular and plural? (b) Which of these words are pronounced with an additional syllable in the plural? (c) Try to discover the reason. (d) What is the additional syllable?

House; place; pane; size; noose; plate; fire; bridge; bride; niche; name; rope; truce; pulse; fence; case; pause; force.

2. Can you tell why in making these plurals we have added **es** instead of **s** alone?

Losses; taxes; topazes; dishes; churches.

277. Some nouns end with a sound so much like that of **s** that we cannot pronounce the plural easily without making another syllable. Hence —

278. RULE III. — *Nouns ending in s, x, z, sh, or ch (soft) form the plural by adding es to the singular. Thus:—*

grass	box	topaz	wish	larch
grasses	boxes	topazes	wishes	larches

EXERCISE 220.

Write the plural of—

Pass; branch; honey; tyro; clef; safe; fez; bush; patriarch;
piano; fife; dwarf; fox; arch; medley; chimney; hoof; i and t.

279. Some nouns require other changes to be made in forming the plural.

Notice those ending in *y*. Which of them end in *y* after a consonant? What is the change in the plural?

fly	key	lily	buoy	story	tray	enemy	ditty
flies	keys	lilies	buoys	stories	trays	enemies	ditties

280. RULE IV. — *If the singular ends in y after a consonant, y becomes ie in the plural.*

Thus: Pony, *ponies*; sty, *sties*; cry, *cries*; body, *bodies*. Also, soliloquy, *soliloquies*; colloquy, *colloquies*.

NOTE. Words like *lady*, *city*, etc., formerly ended in *ie* in the singular.

281. RULE V. — *Thirteen nouns ending in f, and three in fe, form the plural in ves. They are—*

Beef, calf, elf, half, leaf, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, staff, thief, wharf, wolf; knife, life, wife. (Plural, *beeves*, *calves*, *elves*; *knives*, etc.)

All other nouns in *f* or *fe* are regular, adding only *s*.

282. RULE VI. — *About forty nouns ending in o after a consonant form the plural in es.*

The most common ones are—

Buffalo, cargo, calico, echo, embargo, flamingo, hero, mosquito

motto, mulatto, negro, potato, tomato, tornado, torpedo, volcano, veto.
(Plural *cargoes*, *echoes*, etc.)

Most nouns in *o* (several *hundred* in all) are regular, adding only *s*.

283. RULE VII. — *Nine common words always form their plural without s.* They are —

Man, *men*; ox, *oxen*; goose, *geese*; woman, *women*; foot, *feet*; mouse, *mice*; child, *children*; tooth, *teeth*; louse, *lice*.

German, *Mussulman*, *Turcoman*, *ottoman*, *talisman*, are not compounds of *man*, and form their plural in *s*.

EXERCISE 221.

Write the **plural** of each word:—

Jelly; ruby; fairy; glory; duty; victory; turkey; sheaf; chief; strife; money; attorney; cameo; motto; grotto; half; waif; soliloquy; alley; ally; veto; solo; mouse; memento.

284. Proper nouns, when made plural, generally follow the same rules as common nouns. Thus we write:—

All the *Beechers*; the *Adamses*; the *Alleghanies*; several *Mr. Smiths*; both the *Miss Hudsons*; the two *Gen. Johnstons*; one of the *Dr. Davises*; the *Mrs. Wrights*. But—

(a) To prevent confusion, we may make the fewest changes possible in the forms of proper nouns, and may write (for example) *the eight Henrys*, the *Marys*, the two *Miss Carys*, instead of the *Henries*, the *Maries*, the *Caries*.

(b) In referring to members of one family, or to partners in business, we may give the plural form to the title “Mr.” or “Miss” instead of to the name itself. Thus we may say—

Mr. Hayes, or the *Messrs. Hayes*; Miss Sands, or the *Misses Sands*.

(c) A title is, of course, made plural when used with several names
Thus:—

Messrs. Long and Collins; *Misses* Charlotte, Emily, and Anne Brontë; *Drs.* Brown and White; *Gens.* Lee and Jackson.

285. Most Compound words form their plural like simple words by changing the *final syllable*. Thus:—

Frenchmen; greenhouses; flag-staffs; handfuls; court-yards; major-generals; four-in-hands; forget-me-nots; jack-in-the-pulpits; three-per-cents; piano-fortes.

(a) A few compounds are made plural by changing the *first part*, which the rest of the word merely describes. Thus:—

Brothers-in-law; sisters-in-law; sons-in-law; daughters-in-law; fathers-in-law; mothers-in-law; attorneys-at-law; attorneys-general; postmasters-general; commanders-in-chief; generals-in-chief; aides-de-camp; courts-martial; cousins-german; hangers-on; lookers-on; knights-errant; men-of-war; and a few others.

(b) Occasionally *both parts* are changed, as in man-servant, *men-servants*.

EXERCISE 222.

Spell or write the plural of these words:—

Gentleman; grandmother; spoonful; son-in-law; handicraft; maid-servant; court-martial; dining-room; major-general; rope-ladder; eyelash; touch-me-not; go-between; stowaway; sailor-boy; outgoing; cupful; by-path; attorney-general; man-servant; ottoman; Englishman; flower-de-luce; will-o'-the-wisp.

286. Foreign Plurals. Many words taken without change from other languages retain their foreign plurals. Thus:—

Larva, larvæ; vertebra, vertebrae; alumnus, alumni; focus, foci; fungus, fungi; radius, radii; stratum, strata; axis, axes; crisis, crises; ellipsis, ellipses; oasis, oases; genus, genera; phenomenon, phenomena, etc.

287. Some nouns have the **same form for both singular and plural meanings**. We can tell the number of such nouns only by the context. Among them are—

(a) *Deer, sheep, swine, alms, gross*, — always singular in form.

(b) *Amends, means, odds, pains, wages*, — always plural in form.

(c) *Brick, cannon, heathen, head, shot, sail; grouse, salmon*, and many names of fish and of game; *brace, score, hundred*, and other words referring to number or to quantity. These have also regular plurals with a meaning different from that of the singular.

288. (a) Some nouns, from the nature of what is meant, are almost **always singular**. [See § 270.] As,—

Wisdom, music, temperance, honesty, etc.

(b) And some are **always plural**. As,—

Ashes, annals, antipodes, measles, nuptials, scissors, shears, tidings, victuals, vitals, etc.

289. (a) Some nouns are **plural in form** but **singular in meaning**. As,—

News, gallows, and words in -ics, — politics, mathematics, ethics, etc.

(b) And some, **singular in form**, may be **plural in meaning**. As,—

Army, kin, committee, and other collective nouns. Also, cattle.

290. Some nouns used in two senses have **two plural forms**.

brother . *brothers* (by parentage) *brethren* (by association).

cloth . . . *cloths* (kinds of cloth) *clothes* (garments).

die *dies* (for coinage, etc.) *dice* (for games).

fish *fishes* (regarded separately) . . *fish* (collectively).

genius . . *geniuses* (men of genius) *genii* (supernatural beings).

index . . *indexes* (tables of contents) . . *indices* (algebraic signs).

pea *peas* (in definite number) . . . *pease* (by the quantity).

penny . . *pennies* (single coins) *pence* (as a value or amount).

staff . . . *staffs* (as a military term) . . . *staves* (in most senses).

stamen . *stamens* (of flowers) *stamina* (support or strength).

2. CASE.

EXERCISE 223.

1. Tell to **what part of speech** “cross” belongs in each sentence, and how you make the distinction.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. The bridges cross the stream. | 3. The emblem of the Christian |
| 2. He gave me a cross look. | religion is the cross. |

2. (a) In **what six ways** is the noun “Albert” used in these sentences?

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Albert has returned. | 4. My brother Albert is ill. |
| 2. This was Albert's book. | 5. Have you met Albert? |
| 3. Go with Albert. | 6. My name is Albert. |

(b) **How many forms** does the noun have in these sentences?
 (c) Which use requires a special form? (d) How do the forms differ?

291. Besides having number-forms to show singular or plural meaning, nouns have also what are called **Case-forms**, according to their *use* in a sentence. But there is only one of the various uses for which a special form is required.

292. Nouns have two case-forms or **cases**,—the general or **common form**, for all uses but one; and the special or **possessive form**, used to show ownership or possession.¹

293. The **possessive** form of nouns is made by adding to the common form an apostrophe and s [*'s*], or an apostrophe alone [*'*], according to the following

RULE.—*To plural nouns ending in s add an apostrophe; to all other nouns add an apostrophe and s.* Thus:—

Day's, days'; man's, men's; lady's, ladies'; Mr. Hay's book; Mr. Hayes's house; ostrich's, ostriches'.

NOTE 1. In words ending with a sound that resembles that of *s*, the apostrophe with *s* forms an additional syllable. Thus:—

James's; Miss Finch's [pron. *James-ĕz, Finch-ĕz*].

NOTE 2. The only exception to the rule occurs in such expressions as **conscience's sake, goodness' sake, righteousness' sake, Jesus' sake**, where the apostrophe alone is added because another *s* would make too many hissing sounds.

NOTE 3. In forming the possessive of compound nouns or of noun-phrases, the possessive sign is always placed at the end. [§ 285.] Thus:—

son-in-law's, sons-in-law's;
Martin Luther's hymn;

his brother John's death;
William the Conqueror's reign.

¹ In our language nouns once had four cases to suit different uses, but now the **common form** takes the place of three of them.

EXERCISE 224.

Write the **four forms** of each of the following nouns. Thus:—

	SING.	PLUR.
<i>Common Form.</i>	child,	children;
<i>Possessive Form.</i>	child's,	children's.

Girl; woman; wife; monkey; mouse; Miss Long; lady; chief; dwarf; ox; swine; Mr. Adams; man; hero; thief; brother; deer; colony; baby; piano; fox; son-in-law; German; attorney-general.

294. The meaning of the possessive case may often be expressed by the use of the preposition **of** and its object. Thus:—

“**My uncle's death**” or “**The death of my uncle.**”

EXERCISE 225.

1. Write these expressions, using the **possessive case** instead of the prepositional phrase:—

The residence of my sister.

The wife of my brother.

The manners of a gentleman.

A photograph of the baby.

The sting of a mosquito.

The store of Mr. Brown.

The decision of the court-martial.

The top of the chimney.

The retreat of the enemy.

The singing of Miss Vokes.

The stories of Howells.

The lectures of Curtis.

The novels of Dickens.

The mother of James.

The letters of Agnes.

The army of Xerxes.

The home of Adam.

The home of Mr. Adams.

2. Write the expressions in the first column, making every noun *plural*, and then write the equivalent **possessive phrase**.

295. A possessive does not always show ownership. It may denote—

1. *Origin*; as in—“I own **Scott's** novels,” and “She uses **But-trick's** patterns.” Or—

2. *Kind*; as in—“He sells **women's** shoes and **men's** hats,” and “She has a **man's** voice.”

C. THE USES OF NOUNS.

EXERCISE 226.

Analyze these sentences, and tell the way in which the noun "diamond" is used in each:—

1. *Diamonds* are found in Africa and India. 2. Brazil exports *diamonds*. 3. The most precious jewel is the *diamond*. 4. The countess wore a necklace of *diamonds*. 5. This priceless gem, the Kohinoor *diamond*, originally weighed eight hundred carats. 6. The *diamond's* lustre is unsurpassed.

296. There are *eleven* different uses which nouns may have in the expression of thought. Six of these uses we already know about.

A Noun may be used in a sentence as —

1. The Subject of a verb:

The **wind** *sways* the tops of the trees.

Can **woodpeckers** *make* such large holes?

2. The Subjective Complement of a copulative verb (or of a passive verb-phrase) [§ 501]:

These trees *are* ancient **landmarks**.

The Emperor of Russia *is styled* the **Czar**.

3. The Object of a transitive verb (or verbal word) [§ 594]:

We *bend* the **branches** *to reach* the fruit.

4. The Object of a Preposition:

The shadow *of* the **tree** reaches *beyond* the **wall**.

5. An Appositive to explain another noun or a pronoun:

Homer, the famous Greek **poet**, was blind.

She mourned *him*, her only **son**.

6. A Possessive:

The **Indian's** wigwam gave place to the **settler's** cabin

This is the only use that requires a special form of the noun.

Rules for the Use of Possessives.

297. Sometimes the names of several persons are treated like a single noun in forming the possessive.

Thus, if **Parker and Ward** is the name of a business firm, we treat it like a compound noun, putting the possessive sign at the end when we speak of **Parker and Ward's business** or **mills**. To say **Parker's and Ward's business** or **mills** would show that the men were in business separately, or owned different mills.

EXERCISE 227.

In the following expressions do we mean **joint** owners of the *same* thing, or **separate** owners of *different* things?

1. Hall and Whipple's hotel.
2. Elizabeth's and Mary's reign.
3. William and Mary's reign.
4. Rice and Besant's novels.
5. Bulwer's and Thackeray's novels.
6. Jackson's and Grant's administrations.
7. Taylor and Fillmore's administration.
8. Do you prefer Tennyson's or Whittier's poetry?
9. Who were Cain and Abel's parents?

298. RULE I. — (a) *To show separate possession of different things by several persons, use the possessive sign after the name of each.* But —

(b) *To show joint possession, use the sign after the last name only.*

EXERCISE 228.

1. Change these expressions so as to show **joint possession**:—

1. Gilbert's and Sullivan's operas. 2. Woodward's and Brown's pianos. 3. Warner's and Twain's *Gilded Age*. 4. Grant's and Sherman's friendship. 5. Spain's and Portugal's alliance. 6. Beaumont's and Fletcher's dramas. 7. Hay's and Nicolay's *Life of Lincoln*.

2. Change these so as to show separate possession:—

1. Webster and Worcester's Unabridged Dictionary. 2. Steinway and Chickering's pianos. 3. Green and Macaulay's *History of England*. 4. Webster and Worcester's dictionaries. 5. Do you prefer Greenleaf or Wentworth's arithmetics? 6. Bancroft, Prescott, and Motley's History. 7. Lowell and Holmes's poems.

3. Give two different phrases each implying that Noyes and Weeks own the *same* mine. How would you show that they own *different* mines?

299. To express the idea of possession it is often better to use a *prepositional phrase* than to use the possessive sign. In this way we may avoid awkward forms or the unpleasant repetition of hissing sounds. Thus:—

“In the reign of Napoleon the Third” is better than

“In Napoleon the Third's reign”; and

“The houses of my father's partner” sounds better than

“My father's partner's houses.” So, instead of

“Socrates's sayings” we may say —

“The sayings of Socrates.” Hence —

300. RULE II. — *Avoid harsh or awkward expressions by using a prepositional phrase instead of a possessive.*

EXERCISE 229.

Improve the following sentences according to Rule II:—

1. What is the first governor of Rhode Island's name?
2. Did you hear the senator from New York's speech?
3. The conductor of the freight train's excuse was insufficient.
4. Remember my wife's sister's invitation.
5. What is your college chum's father's business?
6. Harper's Magazine's circulation is immense.
7. Where are the architect of the post-office's designs?
8. The Adamses' administration covered eight years.
9. This is Dr. Smith's the eminent surgeon's opinion.

EXERCISE 230.

Point out the errors in the use of the possessive, and give the rule violated.

1. Barnes' History; mens' clothing; a boys' kite.
2. Lady's maids. Childrens' playthings. Everybodies' business.
3. Where is Smith's and Jones's store?
4. This is the administrator of the estate's office.
5. The January *St. Nicholas's* illustrations are admirable.
6. Scott and Abbott's estimate of Napoleon differ greatly.
7. Do you prefer Smith or Kitto's Bible Dictionary?
8. What do you think of the captain of the Dauntless's skill?
9. Which is larger, the Mayflower or the Genesta's jib?
10. This is Dr. Hill, the professor of rhetoric's opinion.

301. A possessive noun does the work of a phrase or of an *adjective*, and, like an adjective, may be used without the noun it modifies, as in "This poem is Longfellow's." [See § 361.]

7. NOUNS AS INDIRECT OBJECT.

302. A noun may be used as the **Indirect Object** of a verb. Thus:—

We have *sent* the superintendent an invitation.

EXERCISE 231.

1. Mention the **object** of each verb, and tell *to whom* or *for whom* something was done.

1. They gave a whip to the driver. 2. He paid a hundred dollars to physicians. 3. I bought a horse for my brother. 4. Who painted the picture for your friend? 5. I asked questions of the teacher. 6. We made a call on the Czar. 7. They gave the driver a whip. 8. She built the king a castle. 9. We offered the lady a glass of water. 10. Did you lend Henry this book? 11. I have written my mother a long letter.

2. Read the last four sentences with the **object next to the verb**

3. Change the first six so as to have the **object at the end**.

303. Verbs like those in the preceding exercise often have two objects, —

(1) One showing *what* is given, bought, etc., called the *Direct Object*, because it shows what the action directly affects; and —

(2) The other showing *to whom* or *for whom* something is given, bought, etc. This is called the *Indirect Object*, because it is less closely connected with the verb.

304. When the direct object comes first, the indirect object is expressed in a prepositional phrase, introduced generally by **to** or **for**, sometimes by **of** or **on**, as in sentences 1–6, Exercise 231.

EXERCISE 232.

1. Read the following sentences, **omitting** the indirect object.

2. Mention the **direct** and the **indirect** objects.

1. He sent my sister some fine mosaics from Florence. 2. The king granted the offender a full pardon. 3. He showed his audience some rare views. 4. This land yields its owner large crops. 5. This merchant allows his customers large discounts. 6. Throw the man a rope! 7. The government granted the Pacific railroad large tracts of land. 8. He forgave the man that debt. 9. Can you teach an old dog new tricks? 10. The judge showed the culprit no mercy. 11. Do you tell me the truth? 12. Can you bring us proofs? 13. We paid the men four dollars.

3. Read the sentences, substituting a **prepositional phrase** for the indirect object.

4. Analyze the preceding sentences, treating the indirect object as a *modifier of the verb*. Thus:—

(The) king granted [the offender] <a> <full> pardon.

305. The *Indirect Object* of a transitive verb shows *to whom* or *for whom* the action is performed.

306. When a transitive verb is changed into a passive verb-phrase [§ 501], the **direct** object should be made the subject. Thus:—

They gave [me] a cordial invitation
is better changed to —

A cordial invitation was given [me], — i.e. [to me],
than to —

I was given [a cordial invitation].

EXERCISE 233.

Use the following verbs in sentences containing **direct** and **indirect** objects:—

pay; find; sell; give; toss; make; return; deliver; write; lend.

8. NOUNS USED ADVERBIALY.

307. A Noun may be used **Adverbially**.

EXERCISE 234.

1. What kind of **phrases** may be used like adverbs?

2. What words or phrases modify the following verbs as **adverbs** would? Tell whether they show *how much*, *how often*, *when*, and so on.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Have you been standing long? | 6. He came very recently. |
| 2. We have been waiting for hours. | 7. They went away in the night. |
| 3. You might have slept a few minutes. | 8. We met them last year. |
| 4. His burden weighs heavily. | 9. She arrived last Sunday. |
| 5. The load weighs several tons. | 10. We buy a newspaper every day. |
| 11. Did you fall far? No; I fell a few feet, then slid several rods, and rolled the rest of the way. | |
| 12. The steamer sailed due east three hundred miles the first day. | |

308. We see from the preceding sentences that not only adverbial and prepositional phrases, but also *nouns*

and *noun-phrases* may be used like **adverbs**. They may modify —

Verbs :	{	We shall remain a week .
		He has travelled a thousand miles .
		He was beaten several times .
Adjectives :	{	This is a pound heavier.
		It is worth ninety cents .
		My ladder is ten feet long.
Adverbs :	{	You might write a great deal better.
		We shall walk a mile further.
		A minute later all was lost.
		Where shall we be a hundred years hence ?

309. Nouns used adverbially may denote time, place, or manner, — showing when, where, or how; but they generally denote **measure**, showing *how much, how far*, etc.

EXERCISE 235.

2. Select the nouns used **adverbially**; tell what they modify, and whether they denote **measure, time, place, or manner**.

1. The sun sets fifty minutes later. 2. The moon rises an hour earlier. 3. They perished ages ago. 4. What is that coming this way? 5. A few years ago men were a month travelling a thousand miles. 6. Cowards die many times before their deaths. 7. A piece two inches wide and four feet long weighs three pounds and is worth one dollar. 8. He has crossed the ocean twenty times a year. 9. I walked the floor all night long. 10. Emperor William was ninety years old last Tuesday.

2. Analyze the preceding sentences orally or in writing.

9. NOUNS USED INDEPENDENTLY.

310. A Noun may be used **Independently** in a sentence, —

1. *In calling to or addressing* some person or thing; as, --

Bring us some lilies, **Mary**.

Gentlemen, have you agreed upon a verdict?

We say of such nouns that they are used "*independently in address*." They are therefore sometimes called *vocatives*.

2. *In calling attention* to something not addressed; as, --

The **wind**, the **wind**! hear how it roars!

Alas! poor **creature**! how she must have suffered!

We say of such nouns that they are used "*independently in exclamation*."

(a) A noun used in either of these ways stands by itself as a separate part of the sentence, *and should be set off from the rest of it by commas or an exclamation point*.

EXERCISE 236.

Select the **nouns** that are used *independently*, and tell whether they are used *in address* or *in exclamation*.

1. "Drink, pretty creature, drink."
2. Give me of your balm, O fir tree!
3. "What a fall was there, my countrymen."
4. "Soldiers, here you must either conquer or die."
5. "Our country! it is not the East with its broad-armed ports."
6. "Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll!"
7. Mr. President, my object is peace.
8. The Pilgrim fathers! where are they?
9. The flag of the free! O long may it wave!
10. "Permit me, sir, to add another circumstance."
11. "Youth!" he said, "I forgive thee."

12. "My country! 'tis of thee,
Sweet land of liberty,
Of thee I sing."

10. NOUNS USED WITH PARTICIPLES.

311. A Noun may be used **with a participle** that modifies it [§ 616] to make an adverbial phrase showing the *time* or *cause* of what is predicated. Thus: —

Our commander being slain, we retreated. [Showing what *caused* the retreat.]

My suspicions having been aroused, I began to watch him. [Showing *why* or *when* I watched him.]

312. A noun used in this way is sometimes said to be used "absolutely." The entire phrase, however, is used as a substitute for an adverbial clause [§ 542], and really modifies the verb of the accompanying assertion. The examples given above mean —

We retreated *because our commander was slain*.

I began to watch him *since my suspicions were aroused*.

EXERCISE 237.

Tell **how each verb is modified**, and explain the **use** of the italicized nouns.

1. His *supplies* having been exhausted, the general capitulated.
2. We returned home, our *work* being finished.
3. The *jury* having been sworn, the trial proceeded.
4. The *river* being impassable, no attempt was made to cross it.
5. His *trials* (being) ended, he rests in peace.

11. NOUNS AS OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT.

313. A Noun [or an adjective] may be used as the **Objective Complement** of a transitive verb. Thus:—

Age *makes* a man **feeble**.

| Ice *keeps* water **cool**.

Elizabeth *made* Raleigh a **knight**.

| Call your dog **Bruno**.

EXERCISE 238.

1. (a) What is a **complement**? (b) What is the complement of a transitive verb called? (c) What is a **subjective** complement? (d) What is completed by a subjective complement? (e) To what does it always refer?

2. (a) Read the examples in § 313, omitting the last word. How does the omission affect the meaning? (b) What is the **object** of each verb? (c) To what are the adjectives added?

314. In “Age **makes** a man **feeble**” the verb **makes** alone does not express the action performed on a man, for we need the adjective **feeble** to show what quality is produced in him. We mean not “Age **makes** a man,” but “Age **makes-feeble**, or enfeebles, a man.”

So, too, the meaning of **made** in the second sentence is *completed* by the noun **knight**, which shows that knighthood was conferred upon Raleigh,—as if we had said “Elizabeth **made-knight**, or knighted, Raleigh.”

315. Words used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb, and at the same time to add some name or quality to the object of it, are called **Objective Complements**, — “objective” because they refer to the object, and “complements” because they complete the predicate.

EXERCISE 239.

Select the **objective complements**, and tell how each is used. In marking the analysis, underline the objective complement to show its connection with the verb, and inclose it in angles as a modifier of the object. Thus:—

(The) snow paints (the) fields (white).

1. Fear made the soldiers pale. 2. We shall tint our walls green. 3. The people made Lincoln president. 4. Time makes the worst enemies friends. 5. The warm weather has made the ice thin. 6. The Turks call their ruler Sultan. 7. The people called Paul, Jupiter. 8. The president has appointed Mr. Clark postmaster. 9. Get the horses ready immediately. 10. The club has chosen Roy captain. 11. We have appointed Henry Wise our agent. 12. Lincoln set the slaves free. 13. The merchant sold his stock short.

316. A word used as the complement of a transitive verb and referring to the object of it is called an *Objective Complement*.

EXERCISE 240.

1. Use these verbs in sentences with **objective complements**:—

Struck; make; named; appoint; elect; swept; called; dyed; chose; colored.

2. What is it to **analyze** a sentence? How do you analyze a phrase?

Parsing.

317. We analyze a sentence by separating it into its *elements*, — words, phrases, or clauses, — and showing how each one is connected with some other; if we then analyze each phrase and clause, we show how *every word* is used.

But we need to be perfectly familiar with the *forms* and *classes* of words as well as with their use. To do this we must examine each word by itself, and follow some system in telling what is *grammatically important* about it. This is called **parsing** the word.

318. To *parse* a word is to tell what is of grammatical importance about it.

319. We should **analyze** a sentence before we parse the words in it, for the forms and classification of words depend upon their *use*, and this we discover through our analysis.

320. We should parse the words of a sentence in the following order: —

- I. **The Base** (subject, verb, complement).
- II. **The Modifiers of the Base.**
- III. **The Secondary Modifiers**, etc.
- IV. **The Connective Words.**

321. In parsing¹ a word we should tell —

¹ *To the Teacher.* — While children are learning to parse, they should give all the facts they can about a word, with the reasons. As they progress, they may substitute briefer forms, and give only the more important facts.

1. The **part of speech** to which it belongs.
2. In what subdivision of that part of speech it is found, that is, **what kind** of noun, verb, adjective, etc., it is.
3. Its grammatical **form**, — number, case, tense, etc.
4. Its **use** or **construction**, or what it has to do with some other word.

322. How to Parse a Noun. The following form may be used in parsing nouns: —

Alexander II. gave [the Russian serfs] <their> freedom [not many years ago].

Alexander II. is a *noun*, because it is a name; *proper*, because it is a special name meant for one person only; *singular*, because it denotes but one; *used* as the subject of the verb **gave**, for it represents the person about whom the assertion is made.

freedom is a noun; *abstract*, for it names [a quality or] a condition; *singular*; used as the *object* of the verb **gave**, for it shows *what* was given.

serfs is a *common* noun, because it is a name for any or all of a certain kind; *plural*, because it denotes more than one; used as the *indirect object* of **gave**, for it shows *to whom* freedom was given.

years is a *common* noun; *plural*; used *adverbially* to modify **ago**; it shows *how long* ago the event happened.

323. The following **briefer form** may be followed: —

Alexander II. is a singular proper noun; subject of the verb **gave**
freedom is a singular abstract noun; object of the verb **gave**.

serfs is a plural common noun; indirect object of the verb **gave**.

years is a plural common noun; used adverbially to modify **ago**.

EXERCISE 241.

Analyze the following sentences, and **parse** the nouns: —

1. Accent and emphasis are the pith of reading; punctuation is but secondary.
2. The maize-field grew and ripened, and it stood in all the splendor of its garments green and yellow.
3. We may cover a multitude of sins with the white robe of charity.
4. I was born an

American; I live an American; I shall die an American. 5. How cunningly Nature hides every wrinkle of her inconceivable antiquity under roses and violets and morning dew. 6. Frequent the company of your betters. 7. Congenial autumn comes, the Sabbath of the year. 8. It is the tint of autumn, a mighty flower-garland, blossoming under the spell of the enchanter Frost. 9. Five times outlawed had he been by England's king and Scotland's queen. 10. One morn a peri at the gate of Eden stood disconsolate.

NOUNS: SUMMARY.

324. About **Nouns** we have learned to distinguish the following:—

Kinds	{ Common Proper	{ Collective Abstract Gender
Forms	{ Singular Plural	{ (Common) Possessive

Uses, or Constructions.

1. **Subject** of the verb —.
2. **Subjective complement** of the verb —.
3. **Object** of the *verb* —.
4. **Object** of the *preposition* —.
5. An **Appositive** explaining the noun (or pronoun) —.
6. **Possessive form** modifying the noun —.
7. **Indirect object** of the verb —.
8. Used **adverbially** to modify the { verb —.
adjective —.
adverb —. }
9. Used **independently** in address (or exclamation).
10. Used **with the participle** — to make an adverbial modifier of the verb —.
11. **Objective complement** of the verb —, referring to the object —.

CHAPTER XVI.

PRONOUNS.

325. We know that a noun, as "horse," is a word that represents only things of a certain kind, which it describes. A pronoun, as "that," is a word that *may represent any thing* without describing it.

Although the pronouns are few in number, they are divided into several classes, and the most of them have much to do besides merely taking the place of nouns. [See § 147.]

A. KINDS.

1. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

EXERCISE 242.

1. Which of the following pronouns refer to **the person speaking**?

2. Which refer to **the person spoken to**?

3. Which to **the person or thing spoken of**?

1. Did *you* bring *me* a letter?
2. *Your* father sent *it* to *my* care.
3. *I* asked *him* for *his* address.
4. *He* wanted *yours* and *mine*.
5. Does *your* sister know *them*?
6. We must inform *our* friends.
7. *They* will forget *us*.

8. *She* knows *their* plans.
9. Tell *her* what *ours* are.
10. *Hers* depend on *theirs*.
11. Know *ye* *its* meaning?
12. *He* telleth *thee* that *thou* mayst keep for *thy* share only what is *thine* own.

4. If only one person is speaking, to whom must the pronouns *we*, *our*, *ours*, and *us* refer?

5. Do any of the preceding pronouns show *what kind* of person is meant,—as a noun would?

326. Pronouns that of themselves show whether we mean the person speaking, the person spoken to, or some person or thing spoken of, are called **Personal** pronouns.

327. (1) Pronouns of the **first person** always represent *the speaker*, either alone or with others.

They are **I** and its variations, — *my, me; we, our, us*, etc.

(2) Pronouns of the **second person** always stand for *the person or persons spoken to*.

They are **thou** and its variations, — *thy, thee; ye, you, your*, etc.

(3) Pronouns of the **third person** generally refer to *what has been spoken of*.

They are **he, she, it**, and their variations, — *his, him; her; its; they, their, them*, etc. Any pronoun not referring to the speaker or to the person addressed is of the third person in *meaning*.

EXERCISE 243.

1. Select the personal pronouns in Exercises 128 and 130, and tell whether they are of the *first*, the *second*, or the *third* person.

2. Collect the pronouns from Exercise 242 into **three lists** according to their person. To which can “-self” or “-selves” be added?

328. *Myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself*, and their plurals, are called **Compound personal** pronouns.

329. A **Personal** pronoun is one that is always of the same grammatical person.

2. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

EXERCISE 244.

1. Of what kind are the following sentences? **2.** For what does **who** stand? **which?** **what?** **3.** To what part of speech do these words belong? **4.** For what purpose are they used? **5.** What kind of sentence is made by putting the answers in place of the pronouns?

1. **Who** discovered the Mississippi?—De Soto. By **whom** was the St. Lawrence discovered?—Cartier. **Whose** discovery was made first?—Cartier's.

2. **Which** is the longer of the two rivers?—The Mississippi.

3. **What** is the meaning of "Mississippi"?—"Father of Waters."

330. An *Interrogative* pronoun is one used to ask a question.

The three interrogative pronouns are **who**, **which**, and **what**. The last two are sometimes used as adjectives. [§ 393.]

331. The word for which an interrogative pronoun stands is unknown until it appears in the answer to the question.

3. CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

I. Clauses as Modifiers. — Adjective Clauses.

EXERCISE 245.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. ragged children | 1. very hot days |
| 2. children in rags | 2. days of intense heat |
| 3. children who wear rags | 3. days which were very hot |
-
- | |
|-----------------------------|
| 1. trustworthy boys |
| 2. boys worthy of trust |
| 3. boys that may be trusted |

1. From the first two expressions in each group explain the difference between adjectives and adjective phrases. 2. In the sentences numbered 3, read the descriptive expressions. 3. To what part of speech do **wear**, **were**, and **may** belong? 4. Mention the subjects, objects, or complements. 5. What does **that** stand for? 6. What does **which** refer to? 7. To what does **who** relate? 8. To what part of speech do these words belong?

332. From the examples in Exercise 245 we see that a noun may be modified not only by an *adjective word* or an *adjective phrase*, but also by a **clause**, or group of words that contains a subject and a predicate.

Thus in the sentence,—

Regions that have no vegetation are called deserts,
the expression **that have no vegetation** is used like an *adjective* to show which regions are meant,—as if we had said “regions *without vegetation*” or “*barren regions*.”

333. A *Clause* is a union of subject and predicate used like some part of speech.

334. An *Adjective clause* is a clause used as an adjective.

EXERCISE 246.

1. Select the **adjective clauses**, and tell what each one modifies or describes.

1. I have read the book **which you lent me**. 2. The story **that it tells** is interesting. 3. The author, **who is a woman**, lives in Texas. 4. Help those **that are weak**. 5. Invite the gentleman **of whom you spoke**. 6. He gave all **that he had**. 7. Those **that are rich** should help those **that are poor**. 8. A man **who cannot govern himself** is a slave. 9. Our journey, **which was very tiresome**, ended at last. 10. The friends **whom we visited** have come. 11. Remember those **whose hearts are sad**. 12. Read such books **as will be helpful**.

2. By what words are the clauses **joined** to the words to which they relate?

335. In the last exercise we see that each clause is *connected* to the word to which it relates by what we call a **Conjunctive** or a “relative” pronoun denoting the same person or thing.

336. The word for which a pronoun stands is called the **Antecedent**, because it generally “goes before” the pronoun.

337. When its antecedent is expressed, a conjunctive pronoun may be called a *relative* pronoun.

338. The four relative pronouns are **who**, **which**, **that**, and **as**.

Who (**whose**, **whom**) represents *persons* only, **which** represents *anything but persons*, and **that** and **as** represent *either*.

(a) As **which** and **that** have no possessive form, **whose** is frequently used to represent something besides persons. It is generally better, however, to use *of which* instead.

(b) When **as** is a relative pronoun, it follows *many*, *such*, or *same*; as in, "I give thee **such as** I have"; "As **many as** wish may go"; "Mine is the same **as** yours (is)."

EXERCISE 247.

1. Select the **relative pronouns** in Exercise 246, and point out the **antecedent** of each.

2. Which of the relative pronouns would you use to represent each of the following words:—

Book; city; cousin; horse; flowers; soldiers; rivers; kings; tea; winter; Bismarck; tribes; armies; conquerors.

3. Write sentences containing the preceding words **modified by adjective clauses**.

II. Clauses as Part of the Base: Noun-Clauses.

EXERCISE 248.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. { <i>Poor people</i> may need help. | 3. { I saw <i>the things which he gave</i> . |
| { <i>The poor</i> may need help. | { I saw what he gave . |
| 2. { Cloth is <i>the stuff that he sells</i> . | 4. { <i>That which you tell</i> is true. |
| { Cloth is what he sells . | { What you tell is true. |

1. Read the expressions that are alike in meaning, but different in form. 2. Compare the subjects in the first pair of sentences, and show how the second subject is made from the first. 3. Find the adjective clauses, and tell what each modifies. 4. Do the antecedents *stuff*, *things*, *that*, add much to the meaning? Give your reason. 5. Read

the sentences in which there are no antecedents: 6. Why is not an antecedent expressed? 7. What pronoun is used in the clause when the antecedent is omitted? 8. What name would you give to a clause used like a noun?

339. We know that an *adjective* may be used without its noun when the meaning is perfectly clear; as in, "The **ignorant** should be taught."

From the preceding exercise we learn that an *adjective clause* may also be used without the modified word, when the meaning of that word would be indefinite. Used alone in this way it becomes a **Noun-clause**. Thus in —

I saw $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{that} \text{ or } \\ \textit{the thing} \end{array} \right\}$ which he brought,

the word *that* or *thing* has of itself so little meaning that we may as well omit it; for it will convey the whole idea to say —

I saw **what** he brought.

So, too, the sentence "Employ **whoever** applies," is equivalent to "Employ **anyone who** applies."

340. In noun-clauses we generally use **what**, **whoever**, **whichever**, etc., for the connecting or **conjunctive** pronouns. But we do not call them "relative," for they only *imply* another pronoun or a noun which is really the omitted antecedent.¹

341. Noun-clauses may be subjects, objects, or subjective complements, etc., like the antecedents which they replace. [§ 623.]

EXERCISE 249.

1. In these sentences **explain the use** of the italicized words and clauses: —

1. I saw his *gifts*. I saw *what* he gave. 2. Milk was her only *sustenance*. Milk was *what* sustained her. 3. I hear your *remarks*. I

¹ "What" formerly followed an antecedent; as in, "He gave me that what I have."

hear *what you say*. 4. You tell the *truth*. You tell *what is true*. 5. Your *work* is excellent. *What you do* is excellent. 6. *Idlers* will fail. *Whoever is idle* will fail. 7. He will sell all his *possessions*. He will sell *whatever he owns*. 8. Take your *choice*. Take *whichever you choose*. 9. He will fulfil his *promise*. He will do *whatever he promises*. 10. Think about your *lessons*. Think about *what you study*. 11. *Whoever confesses* will be forgiven. 12. *Whatsoever you ask* shall be done. 13. *Whosoever will* may come. 14. *Who steals my purse* steals trash.

2. Read each sentence with the **noun-clause changed** to a noun or a pronoun modified by an adjective clause.

342. A *Noun-clause* is a clause having the use of a noun.

343. A *Conjunctive* pronoun is one that connects a clause to the rest of the sentence.

344. (a) The conjunctive pronouns *what*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *who*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, and *whichever* are used in noun-clauses.

(b) The interrogative pronouns are also used in noun-clauses as connectives when a question is repeated indirectly as part of the reply to it. Thus: "Who wrote the book?"—I do not know "**who** wrote the book." "**Who** did it" is a secret. Ask again "**which** he took." I will not tell "**what** it is."

EXERCISE 250.

1. **Classify the clauses** in these sentences, and tell how each is used:—

1. He remembers *what he learns*.
2. Have you ascertained *who wrote the letter*?
3. Man can do *what man has done*.
4. The fur *which warms a monarch* warmed a bear.
5. Reputation is *what we seem*, but character is *what we are*.
6. Beauty is the mark that God sets on virtue.
7. We shall never know who wrote the book.
8. Whoever trusts him makes a mistake.

9. Whatever he does shall prosper.

10. The man who feels truly noble will become so.

2. Point out the **conjunctive pronouns**, and tell which relate to an antecedent definitely expressed. Which two are interrogative?

4. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

EXERCISE 251.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>All</i> men are mortal. | 1. <i>All</i> have faded. |
| 2. <i>Both</i> stories are false. | 2. <i>Both</i> were wrecked. |
| 3. <i>Each</i> hour is precious. | 3. <i>Each</i> shall be rewarded. |
| 4. <i>Many</i> books are worthless. | 4. <i>Many</i> were orphans. |
| 5. <i>Much</i> time is wasted. | 5. <i>Much</i> remains to be used. |
| 6. <i>One</i> man's meat is <i>another</i> man's
poison. | 6. <i>One</i> was taken, and <i>another</i> was
left. |
| 7. <i>That</i> clock is too slow. | 7. <i>That</i> was more expensive. |

1. Compare the italicized words in the two columns; tell which are adjectives, and give your reason. 2. Do they describe, or only limit? 3. What does each one limit? 4. What noun may each of the italicized words in the second column have been used to represent?

345. In the last exercise we see words that are sometimes used as adjectives to limit the application of a noun, and sometimes as **Adjective pronouns** to replace that noun. Thus, in the sentence, —

One can do only **one** thing at a time,

the second **one** is a limiting *adjective* (§ 392), modifying "thing"; but the first **one**, having no noun expressed, is an adjective used as a pronoun.

EXERCISE 252.

Select the **adjective pronouns**, and tell for what each one is used.

1. Few shall part where many meet. 2. All that breathe will share thy destiny. 3. None are so deaf as those who will not hear. 4. This was the bravest warrior that ever buckled sword. 5. She had no for-

tune, and I had none; but that of my father was ample. 6. Some are happy, whereas others are miserable. 7. One ought to rely on one's self. 8. Such as I have, give I unto thee. 9. Both went to the war, but neither returned. 10. Both of these are good, and I will take either. 11. An hour or so had passed.

346. The principal words used as adjective pronouns are:—

All, another, any, both, each, either, few, former, latter, many, more, most, much, neither, none, one, other, own, same, several, some, such, this, that, these, those.

Some of these words often have enough of descriptive meaning to be called nouns.

347. *Each, either, and neither* are called **distributives**, because they refer to a number of objects taken separately.

This, that, these, and those are called **demonstratives** when they point out objects definitely. *He, she, they*, etc., have a similar use in such sentences as "He that would thrive must rise at five."

348. An *Adjective* pronoun is a limiting adjective used without its noun.

EXERCISE 253.

Say to what class each pronoun belongs, and give your reason. Thus:—

"I" is a *personal* pronoun, for it always represents the speaker. "What" is a *conjunctive* pronoun, for it connects a clause to the rest of the sentence.

1. It is I. 2. We are frail. 3. You and he are strong. 4. Few are stronger. 5. Who knocks? 6. To whom shall they go? 7. Is this the house which he built? 8. Which are they? 9. Did you call us? 10. That on the hill is his. 11. Which is yours? 12. Thou art she whom he calls. 13. Bring what he wants. 14. What is his name? 15. I cannot tell what his name is. 16. I that speak unto you am he. 17. Many are called, but few are chosen. 18. I have none to go with me. 19. We respect those that respect themselves. 20. We often deceive ourselves while trying to deceive others. 21. God

helps those that help themselves. 22. How poor are they who have no patience. 23. Who is he that calls us traitors? 24. Such as I have give I unto thee.

B. INFLECTION: CHANGES OF FORM.

1. NUMBER.

349. Fourteen pronouns have, like nouns, **two number-forms**. They are:—

- (1) The five personal pronouns: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{SING. } I; \text{ } \textit{thou}; \text{ } \textit{he, she, it.} \\ \text{PLURAL. } \textit{we}; \text{ } \textit{ye, you}; \text{ } \textit{they.} \end{array} \right.$

- (2) The five compound personal pronouns:

SING. $\textit{myself}; \textit{thyself, yourself}; \textit{himself, herself, itself.}$
 PLURAL. $\textit{ourselves}; \textit{yourselves}; \textit{themselves.}$

- (3) Four adjective pronouns: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{SING. } \textit{this}; \textit{that}; \textit{one}; \textit{other.} \\ \text{PLURAL. } \textit{these}; \textit{those}; \textit{ones}; \textit{others.} \end{array} \right.$

350. All other pronouns have but **one form**, which is used either with a singular or with a plural meaning.

(a) *Another, each, either, neither* are **always singular** in meaning; and *both, few, many, several* are **always plural** in meaning.

EXERCISE 254.

1. Tell whether these pronouns have a **singular** or a **plural** meaning:—

This; we; you; few; she; them; who; myself; both; us; they; each; these; such; which; he; that; many; ourselves; either; whoever; themselves; several; all; those; who; it; any; some; another; neither.

2. Give the **other number-form** of such of the preceding pronouns as have two forms.

2. CASE.

EXERCISE 255.

1. I left **my** trunk behind **me**.
2. **Thou** art the Creator, and **thy** works praise **thee**.
3. **He** sent **his** army on before **him**.
4. **They** obey **their** parents, and honor **them**.

1. Whom do the pronouns in the first sentence represent? 2. Give the use of each one. 3. How does the form change with the use? 4. In No. 2 mention the pronoun used as subject; as possessive; as object. 5. Do they represent the same person? 6. Why do they differ in form? 7. In Nos. 3 and 4 how are the forms of the pronouns changed? 8. How do you account for these changes?

351. We see from the preceding exercise that besides a possessive form some pronouns have still another special form, which is required whenever they are used as *objects*.

Thus, besides **who**, we have the possessive form **whose**, and the object, or *objective* form **whom**, which is used when the pronoun is the object of a verb or of a preposition; as in, —

Whom did you mention? For **whom** is it?

352. Eight pronouns, —

I, thou, he, she, it, who, whoever, whosoever,

have three case-forms or cases: —

- (1) The **possessive**, to show ownership;
- (2) The **objective**, required when the pronoun is used as an object; and —
- (3) The **subjective** or **nominative** form for all other uses.

“Nominative” means merely *naming*.

353. *Cases* are the different forms of nouns and pronouns required by the construction.

354. To give all the singular and plural case-forms of a pronoun is to **decline** it. Thus:—

		NOMINATIVE.	POSSESSIVE.	OBJECTIVE.
FIRST PERSON . .	<i>Singular.</i>	I	my, mine	me
	<i>Plural.</i>	we	our, ours	us
SECOND PERSON . .	<i>Singular.</i>	(thou)	(thy, thine)	(thee)
	<i>Plural.</i>	(ye) you	your, yours	you
THIRD PERSON . .	<i>Sing. Masc.</i>	he	his	him
	<i>Sing. Fem.</i>	she	her, hers	her
	<i>Sing. Neut.</i>	it	its	it
	<i>Plural.</i>	they	their, theirs	them
		NOMINATIVE.	POSSESSIVE.	OBJECTIVE.
<i>Singular or Plural</i> in meaning.		who	whose	whom
		whoever	whosoever	whomever
		whosoever	whosesoever	whomsoever

(a) **Thou, thee**, etc., are now used chiefly in solemn address, or in poetry. The plural **you** commonly takes the place of **thou** and may denote *one* person only.

(b) The possessive forms of these pronouns are adjectives by use, and may be called **possessive adjectives**. [See § 231.]

EXERCISE 256.

1. Name the **case** of these pronouns. Which are plural forms?

Her; him; thine; them; who; ours; its; I; their; ye; whose; thee; whom; us; hers; thy; our; you; me; my; it.

2. Learn the ten **nominative** forms; the nine **objective** forms. Which two forms are either nominative or objective? Which one is either possessive or objective?

355. Three pronouns—**one, other, another**—like nouns, have a special form only for the possessive use. Thus:—

Singular: one, **one's**; other, **other's**; another, **another's**.

Plural: ones, **ones'**; others, **others'**.

356. Most pronouns, however, are not used as possessives, and have but a single form for all their constructions.

Either's and *neither's* are sometimes used; but the phrases *of either*, *of neither*, would be better.

3. GENDER.

357. He, she, and it are gender-pronouns. **He** represents a male, and is of the masculine gender; **she** represents a female, and is of the feminine gender; **it** generally represents that which has no sex, and hence is said to be of the neuter gender.

(a) **He** is often used to represent an antecedent that applies to both males and females. As in, —

Has any *person* lost **his** gloves?

(b) In sentences like “The child cries for **its** mother,” “Shoot the crow if you see **it**,” we use **it**, because the sex is either unknown or unimportant.

358. Personification. We sometimes speak of things *as if* they were persons, and use masculine or feminine pronouns in referring to them. Such objects are said to be personified. Thus: “The sun **his** ceaseless course doth run.” “Nature in **her** robes of green.”

C. USES, OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

359. Pronouns have all the *constructions*, or uses in sentences, that nouns have. Three or four of these uses, however, are rare; and relative and interrogative pronouns are mostly used in one of the first four ways. [See page 182.]

360. An interrogative pronoun generally precedes the verb, and there is sometimes a doubt whether it is used as subject or as subjective complement. We can always decide, however, by noticing the

construction of the word that takes its place in the expected reply. For example:—

<u>Who</u> is it?	It is your <u>mother</u> .
<u>Which</u> is mine?	The small one is yours.
<u>What</u> was he?	He was a <u>clergyman</u> .

Here **who** and **what** must be *subjective complements*, for so are **mother** and **clergyman**, the words they represent. For a similar reason, **which** is a *subject*.

EXERCISE 257.

Tell the use of each pronoun in these sentences:—

1. He liveth long who liveth well. 2. Who is it?—It is I. 3. We have found them. What is it that you have found? 4. In what did you travel? We sent to him by her for this. 5. Whose carelessness caused this? Our defeat was their victory. One's manners show one's breeding. 6. He himself hath said it. They each and all declined to go. 7. He gave one of them permission, and she told us the secret. 8. Each stepping where his comrade stood the instant *that* he fell. [§308.] What is it worth? 9. "O Thou who hearest prayer!" "O happy we! thus blessed." 10. This being the case, we shall not go. 11. The will makes the house yours. You may as well call it such. [§316.]

361. Most personal pronouns have two possessive forms,—one used like an adjective to modify a following noun, as in "**my** hand," "**your** heart,"—and the other used to take the place of a noun, as in "**mine** is here," "this is **yours**."

(a) **His** is used in either way; as "*his* land," "*his* was a useful life."

(b) **Mine** and **thine** are sometimes used like *my* and *thy* before a word beginning with a vowel sound; as "*mine* own," "*thine* honor."

362. The second of the possessive forms may be used in any construction, and with singular or plural meaning. Thus:—

That tongue of **hers** will make trouble.

Thine is the glory. Bring **theirs**, but leave **ours**.

“Wealth is not **his** that has it, but **his** that enjoys it.”

(a) These words are much like adjective pronouns, and may be called *such*.

(b) Do not use the apostrophe in writing *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*.

363. **It** is frequently used as the temporary or anticipative subject of a verb, the real subject of which is a word or an expression that comes after it [§ 598]. As in, —

It is always best (to try). It is true (that health makes wealth).

364. **It** is sometimes used indefinitely without an antecedent. As in, —

It rains. **It** will freeze to-night.

Analysis of Complex Sentences.

365. A *Complex* sentence is one that contains a clause.

Sentences containing conjunctive pronouns are therefore always complex.

366. If a compound sentence contains a clause, it becomes of course a **compound complex** sentence.

367. In analyzing complex sentences the directions given on pages 151–153 may generally be followed.

In written analysis *adjective clauses* may be enclosed like other modifiers, and the use of *noun-clauses* may be shown by underlining them entire. The base of a clause may be marked by lines drawn *over* subject, verb, and complement.

EXAMPLES. — 1. (The) past is <a> <shadowy> page ⁺ {which keeps
[forever] <the> record <of our lives>}.

1. This is a **complex assertive** sentence.
2. Formed of the **principal assertion** and an **adjective clause**.
3. The **base** of the assertion is *past is page*.
4. The **subject** *past* is modified by the adjective *the*.

5. The **subjective complement** *page* is modified by the adjectives *a*, and *shadowy*, and by the adjective clause *which keeps forever the record of our lives*.

6. The **base** of the adjective clause is *which keeps record*, and so on.

2. Nothing is troublesome ⁺ (that we do [willingly]).

NOTE.—Conjunctive pronouns used as complements always *precede* their verbs, as in the sentence above.

3. Whoever does <a> <good> deed ⁺ is [instantly] ennobled.

1. This is a **complex assertive** sentence.

2. Formed of a **principal assertion** with a **noun-clause** for its subject.

3. The **base** of the assertion is — and so on as before.

4. (The) lecturer told [us] ⁺ what he had seen [during his journey].

EXERCISE 258.

Analyze the following sentences:—

1. Who owned the farm that was sold? 2. Tell me what you have learned. 3. The gentleman who called is a physician. 4. He is a man that I esteem highly. 5. Show me those that you have finished. 6. We shall send him whatever he demands. 7. Do you know for whom the gift is meant? 8. Have you heard what caused the fire? 9. I know what you want. 10. Ask her who he is. 11. We prize that which we obtain by effort. 12. This is the book from which he read the story. 13. My lord, I know not what the matter is. 14. People almost never do anything in anger of which they do not repent. 15. He who was taught only by himself had a fool for a master. 16. Nature is loved by what is best in us. 17. There is no secret of the heart which our actions do not disclose. 18. Reputation is what we seem, but character is what we are. 19. Beauty is the mark that God sets on virtue. 20. What man has done man can do. 21. Is this the sole reward for which you have done so base a deed?

368. How to Parse a Pronoun. A pronoun is parsed by giving its 1. *kind*; 2. *antecedent*; (3. *person*;) (4. *number*;) (5. *case*;) 6. *use*; and (7. *declension*).

The following forms may be used:—

1. (My) mind <to me> <a> kingdom is.

My is a *personal* pronoun; represents the speaker; first *person*; singular *number*; possessive *case*; used to modify the noun **mind**.

Or more briefly, —

My is the first singular possessive personal pronoun, and is used to modify **mind**.

2. Those ⁺(that waste <their> youth) lose ⁺what they can [never] regain.

Those is an *adjective* pronoun; represents “those persons”; plural *number*; used as subject of the verb **lose**.

That is a *relative* pronoun; antecedent **those**; used as the subject of the verb **waste**.

What is a *conjunctive* pronoun; antecedent omitted; used as the object of the verb **can regain**.

EXERCISE 259.

1. Parse the pronouns in Exercises 253 and 258.

369.

SUMMARY: PRONOUNS.

Kinds	{	Personal	Forms	{	First	}	Person		
		Conjunctive			Second				
		Relative			Third				
		Interrogative			Singular	}	Number		
		Adjective			Plural				
Constructions.	{	[See page 182.]			Masculine	}	Gender		
					Feminine				
					Nominative	}	Case		
					Possessive				
									Objective

D. ERRORS IN THE USE OF PRONOUNS.

1. WRONG NUMBER-FORMS.

EXERCISE 260.

1. A tree is known by — fruit.
2. Deciduous trees shed — leaves annually.
3. Neither of the ships lowered — colors.
4. Let each person do — best.
5. Even a child is known by — doings.
6. Both the regiments laid down — arms.
7. Each pupil must provide — own books.
8. No faithful girl will forget — duties.

1. What is meant by the antecedent of a pronoun? 2. In the first two sentences, would you fill the blanks with "their" or "its"? 3. Give your reason, and explain the number of both pronoun and antecedent. 4. In the third sentence, does the subject "neither" mean one or more than one? 5. Will "their" correctly represent it? Give your reason. 6. In the next two sentences, why may we not use "their" to represent *person* and *child*? 7. Fill the blanks in the remaining sentences with "their," "her," "its," or "his," as you may think best. 8. When is the singular form of a pronoun to be used? 9. The plural? 10. The feminine?

370. We must be careful always to use a singular pronoun to represent a singular antecedent, and a plural pronoun to represent a plural antecedent.

It is incorrect to say, —

Every man of you must polish *their* own armor,
for the plural pronoun "*their*" does not correctly represent the singular antecedent "man." We should say, —

Every man of you must polish *his* own armor.

371. Agreement. *A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number, gender, and person.*

EXERCISE 261.

Fill the blanks with suitable pronouns, giving the reason for your choice. Thus:—

"Neither had discovered *his* mistake." The singular antecedent "neither" must be represented by the singular pronoun *his*. A pronoun must agree in number with its antecedent.

1. Neither had discovered — mistake. 2. Each contributed what — could. 3. Every one stoutly maintained — innocence. 4. The beaver shows great skill in constructing — dwellings. 5. Everybody must look out for —. 6. A person should control — wrath. 7. When one is ill, — will call a physician. 8. If you find *Little Women*, send — to me. 9. This is such bad news that I cannot believe —. 10. England expects every man to do — duty. 11. Each workman must provide — own tools.

12. Sharpen my shears so that — will cut. 13. Which of the two finished — work first? 14. Let each esteem others better than —. 15. A person may make — happy without wealth. 16. Let each of the girls take — place. 17. A person's manners frequently show — morals. 18. After you have read *My Girls*, return — to me. 19. If thine enemy hunger, feed —. 20. If anybody knows, — must not tell. 21. Many a man will sacrifice — reputation for a trifle. 22. If anybody calls, tell — to wait.

372. Antecedents joined by AND. *Singular antecedents connected by "and" must be represented by a plural pronoun when they denote different things, but by a singular pronoun (1) when they denote the same thing, or (2) when they are kept separate by the use of "each," "every," "many a," or "no."* Thus:—

Martha and Mary (two persons) wept for **their** brother.
The secretary and treasurer (one person) has resigned **his** office.
Each leaf and each flower can speak **its** Maker's praise.
Every maple and every elm will have shed **its** leaves.
Many a flower and many a gem may have **its** beauty hidden.
No friend and no acquaintance gave me **his** aid.

EXERCISE 262.

Supply a suitable pronoun in each of these sentences, giving the reason for your choice :—

1. Joseph and Benjamin rejoiced to see — father. 2. Cultivate good temper and kind feeling : — presence will make all about you happy. 3. Envy and hatred make — possessor unhappy. 4. Poverty and wealth have each — own temptations. 5. Each officer and each soldier will be permitted to retain — arms. 6. My classmate and companion had completed — studies. 7. Every steamer and every train had — complement of passengers. 8. Every lady and every gentleman must register — names. [See § 374.] 9. The husband and father cannot support — family. 10. Every city and village and farm furnished — quota of soldiers.

373. Antecedents joined by OR or NOR. *Use a singular pronoun to represent singular antecedents connected by or or nor.* Thus :—

Either the president or cashier must add **his** signature.

Neither Harrison, Taylor, nor Garfield completed **his** term of office.

374. In referring to singular nouns of different gender we must use pronouns of different gender, or else change the form of the sentence. Thus, we may say,—

Every boy or girl may keep **his or her** books, or

All the boys and girls may keep **their** books.

It is wrong, of course, to say, "Every boy or girl may keep **their** books." If there were a singular pronoun that could refer to either males or females, we might not be tempted so often to use "they" incorrectly.

EXERCISE 263.

Read these sentences, **supplying a suitable pronoun**, and giving a reason for your choice, according to § 373. Thus :—

"Neither Henry nor Thomas had paid **his** fare."

The singular pronoun *his* must be used to represent the singular nouns "Henry" and "Thomas," which are connected by "nor," and hence are to be taken separately.

1. Neither the lawyer nor the physician will give — services
2. If thy hand or thy foot offend thee, cut — off.
3. Where can I buy a good house or farm, if I want —?
4. Neither Alfred nor Ellen recited — lesson perfectly.
5. No man nor woman ever hurt — health in this way.

375. Collective Antecedents. *Represent a collective noun by a **singular** pronoun when you refer to the collection as a **whole**, and by a **plural** pronoun when you refer to the **individuals** of the collection separately.* Thus:—

The committee has transacted *its* business.

The jury have returned to *their* homes.

EXERCISE 264.

Fill each blank with a suitable pronoun, giving the reason for your choice.

1. The audience kept — seats till the close.
2. The jury had not brought in — verdict.
3. The House will elect — speaker next Monday.
4. The Board of Aldermen will be divided in — opinion.
5. Our club will hold — meeting to-morrow.
6. The Post will install — officers next week.

2. WRONG CASE-FORMS.

376. When we use the pronouns that have three case-forms, we must be careful to use only the **nominative** forms as *subjects* and *subjective complements*, and only the **objective** forms as *objects* of verbs or prepositions.

377. The **nominative forms** for subjects and subjective complements are,—

I, we, thou, he, she, they, who, whoever, whosoever.

The **objective forms** for objects of any kind are,—
me, us, thee, him, her, them, whom, whomever, whomsoever

378. Rule for Subjects, etc. — *Never use an objective case-form as a subject or as a subjective complement.*

EXERCISE 265.

Select the proper form of the pronoun, giving the reason for your choice. Thus:—

“It wasn’t (me, I) that did it.” The nominative *I*, and not the objective *me*, should be used as the subjective complement of *was* according to the rule, “Never use an objective case-form as a subject or a subjective complement.” We should say, “It wasn’t *I* that did it.”

1. You and (me, I) will go together. 2. Why shouldn’t (us, we) girls form a club? 3. Thy father says (thou, thee) must obey. 4. I should go if I were (he, him). 5. You said it was (her, she) that called. 6. (Them, they) that have want more. 7. I do not know (who, whom) it will be. 8. Reward (whomever, whoever) is deserving. 9. (Whom, who) do you think it is? 10. It is not (us, we) who are to blame. 11. Was it (she, her) that came last? 12. Few can entertain an audience better than (him, he). 13. I do not think it could have been (they, them). 14. She knows better than you or (me, I). 15. (They, them) that do well should be rewarded. 16. How much older are you than (her, she)? 17. Where are you and (he, him) to stay? 18. Who will ask for it, you or (I, me)?

379. Rule for Objects. — *Never use the nominative of a pronoun with three case-forms as the object of a verb or a preposition.*

EXERCISE 266.

Choose the proper form of the pronoun and justify your selection. Thus:—

“He has invited you and (I, me).” The use of the nominative *I* instead of the objective *me* as the object of the verb *has invited* would be a violation of the rule, “Never use the nominative of a pronoun with three case-forms as the object of a verb or a preposition”; hence we should say, “He has invited you and *me*,”

1. Let this be a secret between you and (I, me). 2. (Who, whom) did they choose? 3. I want you and (he, him) to go. 4. Nothing is

too good for you nor (she, her) either. 5. (Who, whom) did you see? 6. Tell me (whom, who) you mean. 7. There was no one to go except (she, her) and her mother. 8. I wanted you and (him, he) to come again. 9. (Whom, who) is this package for? 10. (Them, they) that honor me I will honor. 11. Send (whoever, whomever) you choose. 12. I will give it to (whosoever, whomsoever) you select. 13. (Who, whom) did he appoint as executor? 14. This is for you and (I, me). 15. Let's you and (I, me) bring the sleigh.

380. *An appositive pronoun requires the objective case-form only when in apposition with an object.* Thus:—

Honor thy *mother*, **her** who loves thee well.

We will write to each other, **you** and **I**.

381. *A pronoun used independently or with a participle should generally have the nominative case-form.* Thus:—

“O **Thou** who hearest prayer!” “**He** failing, who shall succeed?”

382. *The complement of “to be” used as an indirect predicate must have the objective case-form.* [§ 602.] Thus:—

I knew it to be **him**. He thought **them** to be **us**. **Whom** did he suppose **me** to be?

EXERCISE 267.

Read each of these sentences several times, using different pronouns to fill the blanks, when possible. Thus:—

It is **I**. It is **you**. It is **we**. It is **he**. It is **she**. It is **they**.

- | | | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|----------------------------|---------------|
| 1. It is —. | It wasn't —. | 9. It can't be —. | It must be —. |
| 2. Is it —? | No, it is —. | 10. Was it —? | No, it was —. |
| 3. It is not — nor —. | | 11. They saw — and —. | |
| 4. — and — will go. | | 12. Between — and —. | |
| 5. Neither — nor — went. | | 13. Do you know — he sent? | |
| 6. Those are for — and —. | | 14. He knows — it is for. | |
| 7. He mistook — for —. | | 15. — knew it was —. | |
| 8. Do you know — it is? | | 16. — knew it to be —. | |

EXERCISE 268.

Read the sentences, using that form of the pronoun which you think is correct. Give the reason for your choice.

1. Was it you or (I, me) that made the mistake? 2. It was intended for either you or (him, he). 3. (Who, whom) did he send with you? 4. Was it (him, he) (that, who, whom) you met at my uncle's? 5. Be careful (who, whom) you admit to your friendship. 6. No matter (who, whom) the poor fellow is, help him. 7. All (which, that) I have told you is between you and (I, me). 8. (Who, whom) shall we send in his place? 9. The committee did not agree in (its, their) opinion. 10. We saw the procession with (their, its) banner.

11. There are few better men than (he, him). 12. Each of them must answer for (themselves, himself). 13. (Whom, who) besides him do you think was rewarded? 14. Nobody should praise (themselves, himself). 15. Can you forgive (we, us) girls for our folly? 16. Every man and boy took off (their, his) hat. 17. Please explain the phenomena: I do not understand (it, them). 18. That distinguished orator and statesman will give (their, his) lecture to-night. 19. Neither the king nor the queen wore (his, her, their, the) royal robes.

3. CHOICE OF PRONOUNS.

383. *Of the relative pronouns, who stands for persons only, which for other things, and that for either.*

384. *That, rather than who or which, should be used,—*

(1) After a *superlative adjective*. Thus:—

The *wisest* man **that** ever lived.

(2) After *same, all*, and the interrogative *who*. Thus:—

The *same* friend **that** I visited. *All that* was left. *Who that* heard the orator can forget him?

(3) After antecedents denoting both *persons and things*. Thus:—

He spoke of the *men* and the *cities* **that** he had seen.

Why not "*whom* he had seen" or "*which* he had seen"?

385. It is often better to use **that**, rather than “who” or “which,” in **restrictive** clauses; that is, in clauses that limit the application of the antecedent by showing *which ones* or *how many*, etc., are meant. Other adjective clauses state an additional fact about the antecedent, and may be called **explanatory** or **appositive** clauses. For example:—

RESTRICTIVE. Franklin was the commissioner *that negotiated the treaty*.

APPOSITIVE. Congress appointed a commissioner, *who negotiated the treaty*.

386. Punctuation. RULE. — *Explanatory adjective clauses must be set off by commas.*

387. Use **each other** in speaking of two objects; **one another**, of more than two. As in, —

David and Jonathan loved (each) other.

How do the months compare [with (one) another]?

Each and **one** are generally in apposition with the subject of the verb; **other** and **another** are objects.

EXERCISE 269.

1. Fill the blanks with *who*, *which*, or *that*, and give the reason for your choice.

1. He was deceived by the friend in — he trusted. 2. A new party arose, — opposed the National Bank. 3. These are the same persons — assisted us before. 4. Who are those — were introduced to us? 5. All — I said did not influence him. 6. They have not forgotten the friends and the home — they have left. 7. Is that the regiment of — you are a member? 8. He was the first — reached the New World. 9. The surgeon, — was a very skillful man, saved my friend's life. 10. The family — I visited cannot be the one to — you refer. 11. We saw the prisoners and the flags — were captured.

2. Point out the errors in the following sentences:—

1. The tribes of Southern Africa resemble each other. 2. Either of the five will help you. 3. The two nations are suspicious of one another. 4. We saw a ship that its masts were cut away.

CHAPTER XVII.

ADJECTIVES.

[Review pages 102-108.]

EXERCISE 270.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Any bright, intelligent child. | 7. Several large Asiatic lions. |
| 2. Some poor anthracite coal. | 8. What plants are poisonous? |
| 3. Which planet is brightest? | 9. Those three decaying trees. |
| 4. Chasms, dark and dreadful. | 10. Every tenth man was lame. |
| 5. Six tall Russian soldiers. | 11. All the written evidence. |
| 6. That road looks cheerless. | 12. This water tastes salt. |

1. What is an adjective? 2. Which of the preceding adjectives *describe* what is mentioned? 3. Which show *how many* are meant? 4. Mention those that merely show *which ones* are referred to without describing them. 5. What is a predicate adjective? 6. Mention those used above. 7. Name the adjectives used to ask questions. 8. The two derived from proper nouns. 9. Those that are made from verbs. 10. Those that show quantity. 11. Which besides the predicate adjectives follow the nouns that they modify?

A. KINDS.

388. Most adjectives are words that may be added to a noun **to describe** the object named by showing that it is of a certain kind or quality, or that it is in a certain state or condition. As,—

white snow; **skilful** surgeons; **wounded** men; **daily** walks.

Such adjectives often *limit* the application of a noun to those of a certain kind, as in the last three examples.

389. All other adjectives do nothing else but **determine** or **limit** the application of a noun by showing *which ones, how many, or what quantity*. As, —

this brook; the fourth day; six perch; few trout; much rain.

390. A *Descriptive* adjective is one that *describes* what is mentioned.

391. Descriptive adjectives derived from proper nouns are called **proper** adjectives. Those that are forms of verbs are called **participial** adjectives. Thus:—

Brazilian diamonds; fatiguing journeys; decayed wood.

EXERCISE 271.

From the following nouns **form proper adjectives** to fill the blanks in the sentences:—

Genoa, France, America, Spain, Persia, Venice, Italy, China, Japan, Turkey, Greece, Mexico, Africa, Shakespeare, Malta, Brazil.

1. — navigators sailed under the — flag. 2. The — flag and the — flag have three colors each. 3. — carpets and — rugs are imported. 4. — lanterns and — fans are sold here. 5. The windows have — blinds. 6. He is an excellent — reader. 7. Which are more valuable, — or — diamonds? 8. He played several — airs. 9. Draw a — cross and a — cross. 10. We met two —, a —, and several —. 11. Cochineal is a — product.

392. A *Limiting* adjective is one that merely shows which ones, how many, and so on, *without describing*.

393. Limiting adjectives include the following:—

I. The two **Articles**, — **the**; **an** or **a**.

(a) **The** is the *definite* article, used with either singular or plural nouns to point out some particular thing or things.

(b) **An** or **a** is the *indefinite* article, used with singular nouns to show that we mean either *one* only or *any* one.

II. **Numeral** adjectives, — showing *how many* or *which one* of a series, *how large a part*, etc. As, —

March contains **thirty-one** days, or **four** weeks and **three** days. Pronounce the **third** word on the **ninety-first** page. A **tenth** part is smaller than a **sixth** part.

III. The **Interrogative** adjectives, — **which** and **what**. As, —
Which road leads to Rome? **What** cities were destroyed?

IV. The **Conjunctive** adjectives, — **which** and **what**, with their compounds, used to introduce a noun-clause, or to connect it to the rest of the sentence. As, —

Do you know **what** presidents died in office?

Send me **whatever** facts you may obtain.

We have not heard **which** army was victorious.

Some conjunctive adjectives are relatives, and some are interrogatives,

V. **Possessive** adjectives, — nouns and pronouns like *Mary's*, *my*, *his*, etc., which are adjectives by use. [See § 231.]

VI. **Demonstrative** adjectives, — *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, and *yonder*, which point out objects definitely.

VII. **Distributive** adjectives, — *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, and *many a*, which refer to objects singly.

EXERCISE 272.

1. **Classify** the adjectives in Exercise 208.
 2. **Construct ten sentences**, each containing a limiting and a descriptive adjective.
-

B. INFLECTION: CHANGES OF FORM.

COMPARISON.

EXERCISE 273.

1. Lake Erie is a large lake.
2. Lake Michigan is larger than Lake Erie.
3. Lake Superior is the largest lake in the world.

1. Mention the descriptive adjectives in these sentences. 2. What two lakes are compared? 3. With reference to what quality are they compared? 4. Which of the two has that quality in the greater degree? 5. What change in the form of the adjective is made to

show this? 6. With what is Lake Superior compared? 7. What lake is of greater size than Lake Superior? 8. What lake has the quality of size in the highest degree? 9. In these comparisons what changes do you notice in the form of the adjective?

394. Many adjectives are changed in form to show that one object has *more of the quality* than others with which it is compared.

Thus, without making a comparison, we say, —

This is a **high** mountain;

but, to show that another mountain with which we compare it has the quality of height in a *greater* degree, we add **er** to the adjective, and say, —

Mt. Lafayette is a **higher** mountain.

And if we wish to show that one mountain among all those we are considering has the quality of height in the *greatest* degree, we add **est** to the adjective, and say, —

Mt. Washington is the **highest** mountain in the state.

395. To add **er** and **est** to an adjective so that it may denote different degrees of a quality is to **compare** it.

396. *Comparison* is a change in the form of an adjective to denote different degrees of the quality.

397. The **positive** degree of an adjective is its simple, unchanged form. As, *tall, heavy, sad*.

The **comparative** degree is the form that ends in **er**. As, *taller, heavier, sadder*.

The **superlative** degree is the form that ends in **est**. As, *tallest, heaviest, saddest*.

EXERCISE 274.

1. Tell **which** degree of these adjectives is given: —

Happier; nobler; musty; clearer; slower; nearest; hot; proper; bright; slender; small; politer; fairest; luckiest; surest.

2. Compare the following adjectives [see § 466] :—

Thin; feeble; strong; merry; lofty; brave; short; jolly; pretty red; coy; gloomy; keen; shy; rough; great; mighty; lovely; idle; profound.

3. Which change **y** to **i**? Which really add only **r** and **st**? Which double the last consonant?

398. Irregular comparison. The following adjectives are compared in an irregular way, — sometimes by *quite different words* :—

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.	POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
Good }	better	best	Late	{ later	{ latest
Well }				{ latter	{ last
Bad }	worse	worst	Near	nearer	{ nearest
Ill }					{ next
Little	less	least	Old	{ older	{ oldest
Many }	more	most		{ elder	{ eldest
Much }			[In]	inner	{ inmost
[Forth]	further	furthest			{ innermost
Far	farther	farthest	[Out]	outer	{ outmost
Fore	former	{ first			{ outermost
		{ foremost	[Up]	upper	uppermost

NOTE. The words in brackets are adverbs. Several other superlatives are made by adding **-most** instead of **-est**. As, —

northern, northernmost; southern, southernmost.

399. We have learned (§ 223) that by using adverbs as modifiers adjective phrases may be formed denoting various degrees of quality. Thus :—

cold, **slightly** cold, **rather** cold, **very** cold, **uncommonly** cold, **extremely** cold.

400. In this way, by using the adverbs **less** and **least**, we may represent degrees of quality below the positive; and, by using **more** and **most**, we may form adjective phrases, which are equivalent to the inflected forms in **er** and **est**. Thus :—

least polite; less polite; polite; $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{more polite} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{politer;} \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{most polite} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{politest.} \end{array} \right.$

401. Adjectives that are not Compared. Since to most adjectives we cannot add **er** and **est** without making awkward or ill-sounding words, we must use these equivalent adjective phrases in comparing objects.

Thus we say "a *more remarkable* adventure," "the *most porous* substance," and not "remarkabler" or "porousest."

402. The adjectives to which **er** and **est** may be added are words of one syllable and a few words of two syllables, chiefly those ending in **y** or **le**. As, —

Happy, hearty, ready; noble, able; polite, mellow, etc.

403. A few adjectives denote qualities that cannot exist in different degrees, and hence they can neither be compared nor modified by *more* and *most*. As, —

Dead, chief, square, equal, principal, spherical, etc.

NOTE. Such forms as *rounder, straighter, truest*, are sometimes used as if they meant *more nearly round or straight, or nearest true*.

EXERCISE 275.

1. Change the comparatives and superlatives to equivalent adjective phrases, and **change the phrases** to equivalent adjectives.

Handsomer; more shallow; most sincere; fittest; more handy; sauciest; most ample; narrowest; slenderest; more nimble; braver; gentlest.

2. Change them all to phrases denoting lower and lowest degrees.

3. Tell which of the following adjectives are not compared, and give your reason: —

Luscious; empty; hollow; supreme; wrong; tenth; deaf; particular; false; vain; fashionable; naked; honest; lucrative; void; these; blind; equal; fatal; dry; wet; best; mean; dutiful; level.

404. Number. Only two adjectives, **this** and **that**, change their form when used with nouns plural in meaning. Thus:—

this kind; **these** varieties; **that** reason; **those** reasons.

(a) **A** or **an**, **another**, **each**, **either**, **neither**, **many a**, **much**, and **one** are used only with singular nouns; and **both**, **many**, **several**, **sundry**, **divers**, and **most** numeral adjectives, only with plural nouns.

C. USES, OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

405. An adjective may stand in several different relations to the word that it modifies.

406. I. (a) An adjective may be *closely connected* with its noun as an **attribute**, or part of the name. Thus:—

Those | **brave** soldiers prepared for **the** | **coming** battle.

(b) Or it may be used *separately*, as an **appositive**. Thus:—

The *enemy*, equally **brave**, began the conflict.

Cool and **resolute**, *they* awaited the onset.

Punctuation.—When thus used, adjective phrases should be set off by commas.

407. II. It may be joined to a copulative verb as a **predicate** adjective, showing what is asserted of that which the subject names. Thus:—

The contest was **long** and **bloody**, and the result seemed **doubtful**.

(a) When an adjective [or a noun] is the complement of one of the infinitives or participles of a copulative verb, (1) It may refer to some word in the sentence. As in,—

Each army strove to be **victorious**. He tried to become **king**.

Having been **successful**, we pursued the enemy.

or (2) It may be used abstractly, without reference to any noun; as in,—

To be **intemperate** is to be **miserable**. Being **good** is one way of doing good. To become a **scholar** is a laudable desire.

408. III. An adjective may be joined to a transitive verb or verbal word as an **objective complement** to com-

plete its meaning and at the same time add a quality to the object of it. [See § 313.] As in, —

His troubles made him **insane**. We tried to make him **comfortable**.

409. How to Parse an Adjective. To parse an adjective we have to tell only its (1) *kind*, (2) *form*, — if comparative or superlative, — (3) *use*.

These forms may be followed : —

1. “⟨Full many a⟩ gem ⟨of purest ray serene⟩
(The) (dark), (unfathomed) caves (of ocean) bear.”
2. Do you know (what) (American) historian was blind?
3. (Which) king (of England) had ⟨six⟩ wives?

many-a is a *limiting* adjective; used to modify **gem**.

purest is a *superlative, descriptive* adjective; used to modify **ray**.

American is a *proper, descriptive* adjective; used to modify **historian**.

what is a *conjunctive* adjective; used to modify **historian**.

blind is a *descriptive* adjective; used as subjective complement of **was**, and referring to **historian**.

which is an *interrogative* adjective; used to modify **king**.

six is a *numeral* adjective; used to modify **wives**.

EXERCISE 276.

Analyze these sentences, and **parse the adjectives**.

1. Gentle rains revive the thirsty fields.
2. Firm-paced and slow, a horrid front they bore.
3. Calm and serene as the iron walls around him, stood Regulus the Roman.
4. Many amusements appear harmless which are really dangerous.
5. The painting looks attractive, but the artist does not seem satisfied.
6. A few critics have pronounced it perfect.
7. The government considered him competent to command.
8. Make the house where gods may dwell beautiful, entire, and clean.
9. Many try in vain to be happy.
10. The people found their new ruler to be cruel and blood-thirsty.
11. Appearing honest and being honest are very different things.

12. You must tell me about what things you see. 13. Medicine only made the patient worse. 14. To be prodigal in youth is to be needy in age. 15. Which course would you advise him to take? 16. Whatever efforts you make will be rewarded. 17. Fortune may make a man famous, but it cannot make him great. 18. It finds him poor; it makes him rich.

SUMMARY: ADJECTIVES.

410. To sum up: An adjective is a word that adds to the meaning of a noun or a pronoun, without asserting anything nor standing by itself as a name.

411.	Kinds { <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle; margin-left: 10px;"> Descriptive { Proper Participial Limiting { Numeral Interrogative Conjunctive </div>	Forms { Positive Comparative Superlative

Uses, or Constructions.

1. **Modifies** the noun (or pronoun) —.
2. **Subjective Complement** of the verb (inf. or part.) —.
(a) Referring to —. (b) Used abstractly.
3. **Objective Complement** of the verb (inf. or part.) —.

D. ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES.

412. *A* or *An*. *A* should be used only before words beginning with **consonant sounds**, and *an* before words beginning with **vowel sounds**. Thus:—

A house, an honor; a wonder, a one, an onion, an ounce; a yew, a ewe, a ūse, a ūnit, a eulogy, an ūrchin, an ūncle.

NOTE. *One* begins with the consonant sound of **w**, and *long u* begins with the consonant sound of **y**.

413. Article repeated. *When two or more connected adjectives describe different objects, the article is used with each; but when they describe the same object, the article is used with the first only. Thus:—*

A pink and a white dahlia (two flowers).

A pink and white dahlia (one flower).

414. Agreement. *An adjective that denotes one, or more than one, must agree in number with the noun that it limits. Thus we should say,—*

“**This** kind,” not “*these* kind”; “three **feet** wide,” not “three *foot* wide”; “**that** sort,” not “*those* sort”; “six **pounds** of tea,” not “six *pound*.”

415. Such expressions as *a few, a dozen, a great many, a hundred, ten thousand, three hundred sixty-five, two and a half*, may be considered adjective phrases when they modify nouns.

416. Them. *Never use them as an adjective.*

Expressions like “them books,” “them things,” are among the worst errors.

EXERCISE 277.

1. Fill the blanks with *a, an, or the* when needed.

1. Brutus was — honorable man. 2. This is — universal truth. 3. He was — kind and — indulgent parent. 4. Omit — first and second stanzas. 5. — poor and — rich have equal rights. 6. She was married to — dignified and — kindly man.

2. Select the proper form, giving your reason.

1. I prefer (these, this) kind of rugs. 2. Did they use (that, those) hose at the fire? 3. You must avoid (those, that) sort of people. 4. I haven't seen him for (these, this) two weeks. 5. We must catch (them, those) horses.

417. Adjectives not compared. *Do not compare adjectives so as to make ill-sounding or meaningless forms.*

Say the *most* awkward fellow, not the *awkwardest*; and *more* nearly square, rather than *squarer*.

418. Double Comparison. *Do not modify comparatives by more nor superlatives by most.*

For "They could not find a *more worthier* man," say, "a *worthier* man" or "a *more worthy* man." In "This is the most unwise course," omit either *most* or *st*.

419. Forms Confused. *Use the comparative form in comparing two objects, the superlative in comparing more than two.* Thus:—

Which is **better**,—health or wealth?

Which is **best**,—health, wealth, or learning?

420. OTHER misused. *Do not spoil a comparison by wrongly inserting or omitting the word other.* Thus:—

"New York is larger than any city in America," should of course be "than any *other* city in America"; and "Rhode Island is the smallest of all the other States," should be "of all the States."

421. Adverbs for Adjectives. *Do not use an adjective where an adverb is needed.*

Not "move *slow*," but "move **slowly**"; not "*real* good," but "**really** or **very** good."

EXERCISE 278.

Correct the following sentences, giving your reason:—

1. Go very quick.
2. I never heard a more truer remark.
3. Which is largest,—the numerator or the denominator?
4. Which is the best actor,—Booth or Irving?
5. Speak loud and distinct.
6. This is the most quietest part of the city.
7. Let such an one rise, if present.
8. I never saw anything neater done.
9. Which is nearest the north pole,—Europe or Asia?
10. This copy is very perfect.
11. Were you weighed on that scales?
12. He is the awkwardest skater on the pond.
13. Of all my other friends, I like him best.
14. Brother Charles is taller than any member of our family.

CHAPTER XVIII.

VERBS.

[Review pages 126-137.]

422. The life of a sentence is the *verb* that it contains; if we take that away, no matter how many words remain, the meaning is generally gone.

A. KINDS.

423. We have already found that the verb alone is sometimes quite enough to make a finished predicate; as in —

The earth **revolves**. The sun **rises**.

But sometimes it seems only to have begun what another word must finish; as in —

The sun **gives** — light. The earth **is** — a sphere.

Hence we class verbs as **Complete** and **Incomplete**.

424. *Incomplete verbs, or those that need complements,* are again divided into classes as follows: —

Copulative verbs that need a complement to describe what the subject names; as, —

Fire **is** hot. We **were** without food. Heat **is** a force.

Transitive verbs that need an object to show what the action affects; as, —

The sun gives **light**. Burn the **trees**.

425. Of these three kinds of verbs, *complete*, *copulative*, and *transitive*, the two that are not complete may, of course, be called **incomplete**, and the two that are not transitive may be called **intransitive**.

EXERCISE 279.

1. Supply subjects to these verbs, and **complements** where they seem to be needed:—

Screamed; stays; fly; ate; cut; punished; grew; drink; seek; depart; talked; tears; looks; seemed; saw; were; became; found; arm; wore; feels; had; spoke; are; was.

2. Explain the **difference between the two kinds** of complements that you have added.

426. Copulative Verbs. No verb is always copulative, and only a small number are ever so; one of them however is extremely common, namely, **be**, which — with its various forms, **am, is, was, were**, etc. — helps to make many verb-phrases; as in —

“We are waiting,” for “We **wait**.”

(a) **Be** is sometimes used like “exist” as a *complete* verb with more of its original meaning; as in —

The time **was**, when no one lived here; There **is** a God;
but generally it seems only to connect the subject to what is asserted of it.

(b) **Be** enters into the meaning of all other copulative verbs. Thus:—

He **appeared** wise = **was** wise *in appearance*.

The clouds **look** distant = **are** distant *to the sight*.

The water **tastes** bitter = **is** bitter *to the taste*.

So with **feel, sound, smell, become, seem**, etc.

EXERCISE 280.

Point out the verbs the meaning of which is completed by some expression that is **descriptive of what the subject names**.

1. The case seems more hopeful. 2. Man became a living soul. 3. The man has turned fool. 4. He looks well and feels much stronger. 5. Why stand ye here idle? 6. All bloodless lay the untrodden snow. 7. He had been called wise. 8. The English forces proved irresistible. 9. The shutters blew open. 10. The buds smell sweet, but they taste bitter. 11. Some men are born great.

427. Transitive Verbs. Verbs that are usually transitive may also be used *intransitively*; i.e., they may signify merely that something is done, nothing being said about what is affected by the action. So we say,—

“He stayed his wrath” or “He seldom stayed.”
 “He speaks English” or “He speaks slowly.”

428. Even verbs that are usually intransitive may sometimes take an object. Thus:—

Sit *thee* down. She **worked** *herself* to death. They **live** a dreary life, and **are running** a hopeless race. **Walk** your horses up hill.

429. Objective Complement. Many transitive verbs take a complement descriptive of what the object names. [See § 313.]

EXERCISE 281.

Make short sentences showing how each verb may be used either **transitively or intransitively**:—

Answer; boils; dissolve; returned; smells; survive; break; fell; slipped; believes; becomes; shakes; rained; pulls; struck; drives; gnaw; sing; worries; felt; sounds; followed; rattled; tasted; fear; stay.

B. INFLECTION: CHANGES IN FORM.

430. As with nouns and pronouns, so with verbs, each has several forms made by inflection to correspond to changes in the use or in the meaning.

1. TENSE-FORMS.

EXERCISE 282.

1. Tell whether the time referred to is **present** or **past**. If in doubt, add "now" or "yesterday."

He thinks.	She rides.	It stood.	They fall.
I thought.	They caught.	We found.	Waves dash.
He catches.	I walked.	I lose.	Water freezes.
We study.	You wrote.	It grows.	Ice breaks.

2. Change each verb so that it will refer to some other time.

431. Nearly every verb has one **change of form** that affects the meaning as much as if it were modified by an adverb. Thus, speaking of the *present* time, we say, —

I come; I wait; I stay;

but if it was at some time in the *past* that the coming, waiting, or staying took place, we say, —

I came; I waited; I stayed.

432. Forms that are changed to express a difference in time are called **Tenses**, which means *times*.

EXERCISE 283.

Tell whether the form of the verb denotes **present** or **past** time:—

I have.	Thou mayest.	He was.	Thou canst.	He shall.
He does.	You may.	I will.	You can.	Thou art.
I did	He might.	They had.	They could.	He hath.
We were.	I am.	She has.	It is.	You should.

433. The *Present* tense of a verb is the form that generally refers to present time. As, —

I stand; I work; I live.

434. The present tense is sometimes used of what is *past* or *future* to make it seem present or distinct; as, —

In the fifteenth century a new era **begins**.
We **leave** the city to-morrow.

435. In **form** the present tense is like the *simple infinitive*, or *root*, from which all other forms are derived.

436. The *Past* tense of a verb is the form that generally refers to past time. As, —

I **stood**; I **worked**; I **lived**.

437. The past tense is sometimes used of what is really *present* or *future* to make it seem doubtful; as, —

If I **were** well to-day — If I **should** go to-morrow —

438. The common or regular way of changing the present to the past form is by *adding d or ed at the end*. Thus: —

I lived; I borrowed; I waited.

But in a number of the oldest verbs the change appears in the middle of the word, whether anything is added or not. Thus: —

stand, **stood**; fall, **fell**; see, **saw**.

EXERCISE 284.

Write the **present tense** of —

Patted; played; began; could; caught; worked; stood; walked; chose; came; waited; bit; tried; crept; struck; blew; broke; flew; gazed; brought; burnt; whipped; did; bled; dug.

Write the **past tense** of as many of these as you can: —

Work; write; make; wear; think; till; love; take; strike; see; pour; steal; speak; sit; sell; run; ride; guess; smoke; give; part; drive; dream; ask; try.

439. About twenty verbs cannot be changed in this way, and the time is therefore shown by something besides the form; as, —

Now we **spread** our tents. We **spread** them *yesterday*.

In such cases we may *call* the form present or past according to its *use*.

440. *Tenses* are the forms of a verb that distinguish time.

2. MOOD.

441. If we study verbs in sentences, we find them used to predicate in several ways or modes. Thus, they may be used —

1. **To command**, as in "**Be** ready"; "**Wish** with me."
2. (a) **To assert positively**, as in "**I am** ready"; "**She wishes** it."
 (b) **To question**, as in "**Am** I ready?" "**Who wishes** this?"
3. **To say something doubtfully**, as if only thought of; as in —
 "**If it be** there, I will bring it"; "**If I were** ready, I would go."

442. It was once the custom to use in such cases quite different forms of the verb called — not tenses to show times — but **Moods** to show the manner or mood in which a person spoke. Even nowadays the forms are not always the same, and hence we say that —

443. I. A verb used to express a *command* or a *request* is in the **Imperative** mood. As, —

Go quickly. **Come** with me. **Be** honest.

444. II. A verb used either (1) *to state something as a fact*, or (2) *to ask a simple question*, is in the **Indicative** mood. As, —

He **goes** quickly. Does she **wish** it?

If she **was** there, I **failed** to see her.

Most sentences are, as we know, of this kind.

445. III. A verb used to express in a doubtful way either (1) *what is uncertain and to be decided in the future*, or (2) *a supposition that is contrary to fact*, or (3) *a wish*, is in the **Subjunctive mood**. As, —

(1) Though he **be** dead, we shall find him. Even if he **fail**, he will not despair. (2) If she **were** willing, I would help her. (3) I wish I **were** well. Thy kingdom **come**.

Sentences of this kind are comparatively rare.

446. We know that the *order of words* may distinguish an assertion from a question; as in —

“Does he ride?” “He does ride”;

and also that the *dropping of the subject* may distinguish an assertion from a command; as in —

“You ride every day”; “Ride every day.”

Now commonly there is nothing about the form of a verb to show in what manner it is used; but still there are a few special forms in the indicative mood, so that even now the form *does sometimes vary* with different modes of speaking. Thus: —

INDICATIVE FORMS.

1. Thy foe **appears**; advance.
2. Thine enemy **thirsts**; give him drink.
3. He **telleth** all our plans.
4. He said he **was** to stay.
5. I know what the result **is**.

INDICATIVE FORM.

1. Thou **keepest** my feet from falling.

SUBJUNCTIVE FORMS.

1. If thy foe **appear**, advance.
2. If thine enemy **thirst**, give him drink.
3. See that he **tell** no man.
4. He said that if he **were** to stay —
5. Whatever **be** the result —

IMPERATIVE FORM.

1. **Keep** thou my feet from falling.

447. When used with the same subject, such forms as **appears, thirsts, telleth, was, is, am, art, are**, belong only

to the *Indicative* mood; such forms as **appear, thirst, tell, were, be**, belong only to the *Subjunctive* mood. Forms like **keep** instead of **keepest** belong to the *Imperative* mood. [For Potential phrases, see § 483.]

448. *Mood* is the power of a verb to denote the manner of speaking.

EXERCISE 285.

Select from the following sentences **five** verbs that express a command; **three** that assert a condition assumed to be a fact; **five** that state facts positively:—

1. Clouds bring rain. 2. Dare to do right. 3. I wish my father were here. 4. The eclipse was total. 5. A robin built its nest in our elm. 6. If I am not paid, I work hard. 7. Speak kindly to the erring. 8. He would be a spendthrift if he were rich. 9. If he was severe, he was not unjust. 10. The crew furled the sails. 11. Be just, and fear not. 12. Improve your opportunity before it be lost. 13. I should go even if the danger were greater. 14. If the truth be known, no harm can result. 15. Though she was there, I did not see her.

3. NUMBER AND PERSON.

449. The differences in the special indicative forms of a verb depend on what its subject is. Thus, in the *present* tense we say,—

I, we, you, they, or the men **stay**; but

He, she, it, or the man **stays**,—

using a *special form* made by adding **s** or **es** whenever the subject is a third-singular pronoun or a singular noun.

450. As this special form is never used except with a subject denoting the *third person* and the *singular number*, it is called the **third-singular** form. It is also called the **s-form**, because it always ends in **s**.

EXERCISE 286.

Use every one of these words in succession to fill each blank, and spell the **third-singular form** of the verb :—

I, you, he, we, you, she, they, we, it, the men, the man.

— go,	— find,	— perch,	— deny,	— smash,
— wish,	— ply,	— crouch,	— watch,	— cry,
— have,	— do,	— row,	— lie,	— lay.

451. Changes to suit the person and number of the subject were once much more common than now, and two old-style forms such as we see in the Bible, are still used, especially in prayer and in poetry. Thus :—

(a) With **thou** as subject the verb takes the ending **st** or **est** in both the present and past indicative tenses. For example :—

Thou **waitest**. Thou **waitedst**. Thou **goest**. Thou **stoodst**;

and (b) instead of the customary third-singular form in **s**, a form ending in **th** or **eth** may be used in the present tense. Thus :—

She **giveth**. He **goeth**. The wind **bloweth**.

EXCEPTIONS. The verb **be** keeps many of its old changes of form, as shown in § 467.

Dare (meaning *venture*), and **need**, sometimes take no added **s** with a third-singular subject. Thus :—

He dare not go.	He dares you to do it.
He need not stay.	He needs a coat.

452. The meaning of the verb is hardly affected by such changes, for they only show to which one or to how many the statement applies; but as they are made according to the meaning of the subject, that is sometimes said “to govern” the verb, and the verb is said “to agree with its subject.”

4. VERBAL NOUNS and VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

453. By inflecting a verb in these different ways, we change the *form*, the *application*, and sometimes the *use* of it; but so long as it can predicate in any way, it still remains a verb.

We now come to certain other **verbal forms** that do not predicate anything, and therefore are *not* verbs like the rest.

EXERCISE 287.

1. Which of these verbal words and expressions **cannot by themselves form the predicate** of a sentence?

grow	took	broken	flying	give
running	goes	flew	fallen	grown
come	worked	playing	to take	to wait

2. Which may be **nouns**, and which **adjectives**?

454. From almost every verb are formed two special kinds of verbal words having the **use of other parts of speech**.

Thus, besides the true *verbs* **drives**, **drove**, we have two *nouns*, **driving** and (to) **drive**, that name the action expressed by the verb; as in—

Driving is pleasant; I like **to drive**.

and two *adjectives*, **driving** and **driven**, that describe either the actor or the receiver of the action; as in—

A man **driving**; Snow **driven** by the wind.

455. Such nouns and adjectives as these differ from all others that are derived from verbs, since they may be formed from almost *any verb*; and, what is still more important to notice, they may have *the same modifiers* that verbs have. Thus:—

(1) The **nouns**, if derived from transitive verbs, may take an object. As in—

Driving fast horses is pleasant;

and they always may be modified by an adverb. As in—

I like **to drive slowly**.

Here **driving** and **to drive** are used as subject and object, respectively; but, like verbs, they express action as passing over to something else, or as going on in different ways.

(2) So with **adjectives**, we may say,—

“a man **beating a dog**,” or “a dog *cruelly* **beaten**.”

Here **beating** and **beaten** describe the man and the dog like adjectives, and are modified like verbs. There is no assertion in either expression, yet we think of the man as acting and of the dog as acted upon, as much as if a verb were used.

EXERCISE 288.

Find all the **verbal nouns** and **verbal adjectives**.

- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| 1. Horses drawing stone. | 6. Ducks shot by a hunter. |
| 2. Stone drawn by horses. | 7. To work is to win. |
| 3. To draw well requires skill. | 8. Telling lies hardens the heart. |
| 4. A good teacher of drawing. | 9. The house standing back from |
| 5. Ducks swimming in the lake. | the road. |
| 10. Fields ploughed in the early fall. | |
| 11. An empty boat carried over the falls. | |
| 12. A long-boat carrying several shipwrecked passengers. | |
| 13. The habit of smoking tobacco or of playing with fire. | |
| 14. To waste in youth is to want in age. | |

456. The two *nouns* regularly formed from verbs are called **Infinitives**.

457. 1. The **first** infinitive is the root or simplest form of the verb, either with or without the sign **to** before it; as, —

(to) drive, (to) spin, (to) sleep, (to) walk.

This is called the **root-infinitive**, or simply the **infinitive**.

2. The **second** infinitive is formed with the ending **ing**; as, —

driving, spinning, sleeping, walking.

This is called the **infinitive in ing**.¹ It is often treated in all respects like a noun (§ 270), having similar uses and modifiers. Thus: —

(Rapid) driving (in crowded streets) is dangerous.

¹ Or sometimes the "*gerund*."

EXERCISE 289.

1. Select the **infinitives**, and, if possible, tell how they are used.

1. These are wagons for carrying corn. 2. Writing letters is making signs. 3. Have you ever tried writing with your left hand? 4. We ran to the rescue. 5. We ran to rescue them. 6. To write letters easily is an accomplishment. 7. He came to stay here for his health. 8. He has tried to walk without his crutches. 9. His physician forbade him to run after eating. 10. I desire to go. I wish to go. I will go.

2. When possible, **substitute the other infinitive** for the one given in these sentences.

3. **Form the infinitive** of any ten verbs.

458. An *Infinitive* is a *verbal noun* that names the action or condition expressed by the verb, and takes the same complements and modifiers.

NOTE. The word "infinitive" means *infinite, unlimited*. It is applied to these forms because the idea of the verb is never limited as to person and number.

459. The two *adjectives* regularly formed from verbs are called **Participles**.

460. One participle describes a person or thing as *continuing* an action. It is called the **active** or **imperfect participle**, and always ends in **ing**; as, —

driving, spinning, sleeping, walking.

461. The other participle is called the **passive** or **perfect participle**, because what it describes is regarded either (a) as *having received the action* expressed by the verb; as in —

Threads are **spun**, Cattle are **driven**;

or else (b) as *having completed* some action; as in —

One who has **walked** or **slept**.

This participle usually ends in **t**, **d**, or **n**.

NOTE. The names **present** and **past** are also used.

EXERCISE 290.

Select the **participles**. Tell from what verb each is derived, what each describes, and what its modifiers are.

A fisherman leaving the shore pulled out to the sunken reef in a boat kept for his use. Hearing a ship pounding on the rocks, he rowed till he could see the crew bound or clinging half-frozen to the shattered masts. They were partly hidden by the fog, and partly by patches of torn sails.

462. A *Participle* is a verbal adjective. It shares or *participates* in the nature of a verb and of an adjective.

463. These verbal nouns and adjectives are given along with other verb-forms, because —

- (1) They are made from almost every verb ;
- (2) Most verb-phrases are formed by help of them ; and —
- (3) They take the same kind of complements and modifiers that verbs take.

CONJUGATION.

464. When we put together all the different forms of a verb, we have what is called the **Conjugation** of it.

465. We shall find that there are commonly but *seven* or *eight* changes made in the verb by inflection. In the verbs **wait** and **give**, for instance, we use the simple forms —

- (1) **Wait** and **give**, as infinitive, as imperative, as present tense of the indicative and subjunctive ;

We substitute —

- (2) **Waits** and **gives** in the present indicative with *third-singular* subjects ;
- (3) **Waited** and **gave** as past tense ;
- (4) **Waiting** and **giving** as the second infinitive and as the imperfect or active participle ;

(5) **Waited** (like the past tense) and **given** as the perfect or passive participle.

Besides these we have the solemn or poetical forms, —

(6) **Waitest** and **givest**, in the present indicative, with the subject *thou* ;

(7) **Waitedst** and **gavest**, in the past indicative, with the subject *thou* ; and —

(8) **Waiteth** and **giveth**, in the present indicative, with a *third-singular* subject.

466. Rules for Spelling. I. *The third-singular form of the present indicative is made by adding s to the root-form, or es, when needed for the sound. If the verb ends in y after a consonant, y is changed to i, and es is added.* [See §§ 278, 279.] As, —

Make, makes ; go, goes ; wish, wishes ; defy, defies.

EXCEPTION. **Have** becomes **has** (not *haves*).

II. *Silent e is dropped before the suffixes er, ed, ing, etc.* As, —

Hope, hoped, hoping, hopest, hopeth.

EXCEPTIONS. *Hoe, shoe, toe, dye, singe, and tinge* retain the *e* before **ing**. **Die** becomes **dying** ; **have** becomes **had** (not *haved*).

III. *Monosyllables, and dissyllables accented on the second syllable, if they end in a single consonant after a single vowel, double the final consonant before er, ed, ing, etc.* As, —

Sad, sadder, saddest ; hop, hopped, hopping ; refer, referred.

IV. *To verbs ending in ic, k is added before all endings but s.* As, —

Traffic, trafficked, trafficking.

EXERCISE 291.

Write in columns the **five common forms** of these verbs. Thus:—

<i>Root.</i>	<i>S-form.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Imperf. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
try,	tries,	tried,	trying,	tried.
rob,	robs,	robbed,	robbing,	robbed.

[See page 236 for forms that you do not know.]

Omit ; do ; carpet ; dry ; defer ; wrap ; befit ; submit ; behave ; echo ; differ ; bar ; benefit ; live ; merit ; ship ; glorify ; have ; equip ; regret ; save ; slap ; concur ; gaze ; search ; quit ; compel ; gossip ; singe ; singe.

Conjugation of the Irregular Verb BE.

467. The verb **be** not only keeps many of the old forms, but is really made up of three different verbs, — the infinitives and participles **be, being, been**, from one root; the present tense **am, are**, etc., from another; and the past **was, were**, from a third. Thus:—

Indicative .	{	Present	{	am, with <i>I</i> as subject.
				art, with <i>thou</i> as subject.
				is, with any <i>third-singular</i> subject.
				are, with <i>you</i> , or any <i>plural</i> subject.
	{	Past . .	{	was, with any <i>singular</i> subject ; — not
				with “ <i>thou</i> ” nor “ <i>you</i> .”
				wast or wert, with <i>thou</i> as subject.
				were, with <i>you</i> , or any <i>plural</i> subject.
Subjunctive	{	Present . .	be.	Imperative be.
		Past . . .	were.	
Infinitives .	{	(to) be.		Imperfect Participle being.
		being.		Perfect Participle been.

EXERCISE 292.

1 Fill the blanks with the proper *present* indicative forms of **be**.

I — well.	We — well.	She — well.
Thou — well.	You — well.	One — well.
He — well.	They — well.	Some — well.

2. Fill the blanks with the proper *past* indicative forms of **be**.

I — absent.	We — absent.	The king — present.
You — absent.	They — absent.	The princes — present.
He — absent.	Roy — present.	Many — present.
She — absent.	Boys — present.	Thou — present.

468. Most verbs have *seven* inflected forms, only *four* of which are in common use. These verbs are conjugated like **wait**, as follows:—

Conjugation of WAIT.

<i>Indicative</i> .	{	<i>Present</i> {	wait. waits (or waiteth), with a <i>third-singular</i> subject only. (waitest, with <i>thou</i> as subject.)
		<i>Past</i> . . {	waited. (waitedst, with <i>thou</i> as subject).
<i>Subjunctive</i> {	<i>Present</i> . . wait. <i>Imperative</i> wait.		
	<i>Past</i> . . . waited.		
<i>Infinitives</i> . {	(to) wait. <i>Imperfect Participle</i> waiting.		
	waiting. <i>Perfect Participle</i> waited.		

469. Some verbs have *eight* or *nine* inflected forms, *three* of which are seldom used. These verbs are conjugated like **give**.

Conjugation of GIVE.

<i>Indicative</i> .	{	<i>Present</i> {	give. gives (or giveth), with a <i>third-singular</i> subject only. (givest, with <i>thou</i> as subject.)
		<i>Past</i> . . {	gave. (gavest, with <i>thou</i> as subject.)
<i>Subjunctive</i> {	<i>Present</i> . . give. <i>Imperative</i> give.		
	<i>Past</i> . . . gave.		
<i>Infinitives</i> {	(to) give. <i>Active Participle</i> giving.		
	giving. <i>Passive Participle</i> given.		

470. Regular and Irregular Verbs. We see that the two verbs **wait** and **give** are changed in different ways. The past tense and the perfect participle of **wait** are formed *alike*, that is by adding **ed**. Thus:—

wait, waited, waited.

But in **give** these two parts are *unlike*, being formed without the use of **ed**. Thus:—

give, gave, given.

Elsewhere the changes are the same, and in order to conjugate any verb we commonly need to know only how these two forms are made.

471. Most verbs¹ form the past tense and the perfect participle by adding **d** or **ed** to the root, and are called **Regular Verbs**. All other verbs are called **Irregular**.² For example:—

	ROOT- INF.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.		ROOT- INF.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.
<i>Regular</i> {	wait,	wait ed ,	wait ed .	<i>Irregular</i> {	give,	gave,	given.
	live,	lived,	lived.		fall,	fell,	fallen.

472. These three forms, the **root-infinitive**, the **past tense**, and the **perfect participle**, are called the **Principal Parts** of the verb, because when they are known, the whole conjugation of the verb can be given.

473. Double Forms. Some verbs have *both regular and irregular forms* for the past tense, or for the perfect participle, or for both. Sometimes these forms differ in meaning, and frequently in use, but generally either may be used.

¹ All but about two hundred of the thousands of verbs in the language.

² *To the Teacher.*—Though for convenience we may distinguish verbs as “regular” and “irregular,” it is proper and useful to bear in mind the genuine classification of them into — (I.) *Verbs of the New Conjugation* (comprising all that are “regular” and some that are “irregular”) in which the past tense and the perfect participle ordinarily add **ed**, **d**, or **t**, but have in some cases been changed for ease of utterance; and — (II.) *Verbs of the Old Conjugation* (all called “irregular”), which after a **change of vowel sound** for the past tense, and after the addition of **en** or **n** for the participle, have often undergone euphonic changes.

The first class includes all new verbs, and some others. Verbs of the second class, designated by heavy type in the list (p. 236), all belong to the oldest stage of the language.

List of Irregular Verbs.

474. [Forms now out of use or rare are as a rule omitted. Otherwise the list contains all verb-forms of the old conjugation printed in *bold-faced* type, and all irregular forms of the new conjugation printed in *plain* type. Where only part of the forms are irregular, the regular forms are given too.]

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
Abide	abode	abode	Cleave ¹	{ clove	{ cloven
Awake	{ awoke			{ cleft	{ cleft
	{ awakened	awaked	Cling	clung	clung
			Clothe	{ clothed	{ clothed
Be (pres. am)	{ was	been		{ clad	{ clad
			Come	came	come
Bear	{ bore	{ borne	Cost	cost	cost
	{ bare	{ [carried]	Creep	crept	crept
		{ born	Crow	{ crew	{ —
		{ [brought forth]		{ crowed	{ crowed
Beat	beat	beaten	Cut	cut	cut
Begin	began	begun			
Bend	bent	bent		{ dared	dared
Bereave	{ bereft	{ bereft	Dare	{ durst [ventured]	
	{ bereaved	{ bereaved	Deal	dealt	dealt
Beseech	besought	besought	Dig	{ dug	{ dug
Bet	{ betted	{ betted		{ digged	{ digged
	{ bet	{ bet	Do	did	done
Bid	{ bade	{ bidden	Draw	drew	drawn
	{ bid	{ bid			
Bind	bound	bound	Dream	{ dreamed	{ dreamed
				{ dreamt	{ dreamt
Bite	bit	{ bitten	Drink	drank	drunk
		{ bit	Drive	drove	driven
Bleed	bled	bled		{ dwelt	{ dwelt
Blend	{ blended	{ blended	Dwell	{ dwelled	{ dwelled
	{ blent	{ blent			
Bless	blessed	{ blessed	Eat	ate	eaten
		{ blest			
Blow	blew	blown	Fall	fell	fallen
Break	broke	broken	Feed	fed	fed
Breed	bred	bred	Feel	felt	felt
Bring	brought	brought	Fight	fought	fought
	{ built	{ built	Find	found	found
Build	{ builded	{ builded	Flee	fled	fled
	{ burned	{ burned	Fling	flung	flung
Burn	{ burnt	{ burnt	Fly	flew	flown
Burst	burst	burst	Forget	forgot	{ forgotten
Buy	bought	bought			{ forgot
			Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Can	could	—	Freeze	froze	frozen
Cast	cast	cast			
Catch	caught	caught	Get	got	{ got
					{ gotten
Chide	chid	{ chidden			{ gilded
		{ chid	Gild	gilded	{ gilt
Choose	chose	chosen			

¹ Cleave, meaning *adhere*, is regular.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
Gird	{ girded	{ girded	Pay	paid	paid
Give	{ girt	{ girt	Pen	{ penned	{ penned
Go	{ gave	{ given	Put	{ pent	{ pent
Grave	{ [went]	{ gone		put	put
Grind	{ —	{ graven	Quit	{ quit	{ quit
Grow	{ graved	{ graved	—	{ quitted	{ quitted
	{ ground	{ ground		quoth	—
	{ grew	{ grown			
Hang ¹	hung	hung	Rēad	rēad	rēad
Have	had	had	Rend	rent	{ rent
Hear	heard	heard			{ rended
Heave	{ hove	{ hoven	Rid	rid	rid
	{ heaved	{ heaved	Ride	rode	ridden
Hew	{ hewed	{ hewed	Ring	rang	rung
	{ —	{ hewn	Rise	rose	risen
Hide	hid	{ hidden	Rive	{ —	{ riven
Hit	hit	hit		{ rived	{ rived
Hold	held	held	Run	ran	run
Hurt	hurt	hurt			
Keep	kept	kept	Saw	sawed	{ sawed
Kneel	{ knelt	{ knelt			{ sawn
	{ kneeled	{ kneeled	Say	said	said
Knit	{ knit	{ knit	See	saw	seen
Know	{ knitted	{ knitted	Seek	sought	sought
	knew	known	Sell	sold	sold
			Send	sent	sent
Lade	laded	{ laded	Set	set	set
		{ laden	Shake	shook	shaken
Lay	laid	laid	Shall	should	—
Lead	led	led	Shape	shaped	{ shaped
Leap	{ leaped	{ leaped			{ shapen
	{ leapt	{ leapt	Shave	shaved	{ shaved
Learr	{ learned	{ learned			{ shaven
	{ learnt	{ learnt	Shear	sheared	{ sheared
Leave	left	left			{ shorn
Lend	lent	lent	Shed	shed	shed
Let	let	let	Shine	{ shone	{ shone
Lie	lay	lain		{ shined	{ shined
Lose	lost	lost	Shoe	shod	shod
			Shoot	shot	shot
Make	made	made	Show	{ showed	{ shown
May	might	—		{ shred	{ showed
Mean	meant	meant	Shred	shred	shred
Meet	met	met	Shrink	{ shrank	{ shrunk
Mow	mowed	{ mowed		{ shrunk	{ shrunken
		{ mown	Shrive	{ shrived	{ shriven
Must	—	—			
			Shut	shut	shut
Ought	—	—	Sing	{ sang	{ sung
				{ sung	{ sung
Pass	passed	{ passed	Sink	sank	sunk
		{ past	Sit	sat	sat
			Slay	slew	slain

¹ Hang, meaning *cause death*, is regular.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
Sleep	slept	slept	String	strung	strung
Slide	slid	{ slidden	Strive	strove	striven
Sling	slung	{ slid	Strow	{ —	{ strown
Slink	slunk	{ slung	Swear	swore	sworn
Slit	slit	{ slunk	Sweat	{ sweat	{ sweated
Smell	{ smelled	{ smelled	Sweep	{ sweated	{ sweated
Smite	{ smelt	{ smelt	Swell	{ swept	{ swept
Sow	{ smote	{ smitten		{ —	{ swollen
	sowed	{ sowed	Swim	{ swelled	{ swelled
		{ sown	Swing	swam	swum
Speak	{ spoke	{ spoken		swung	swung
Speed	{ spake		Take	took	taken
Spell	sped	sped	Teach	taught	taught
Spend	{ spelled	{ spelled	Tear	tore	torn
Spill	{ spelt	{ spelt	Tell	told	told
Spin	{ spent	{ spent	Think	thought	thought
Spit	{ spilled	{ spilled	Thrive	{ throve	{ thriven
Split	{ spilt	{ spilt		{ thrived	{ thrived
Spoil	spun	spun	Throw	threw	thrown
	{ spit	{ spit	Thrust	thrust	thrust
	{ spat		Tread	trod	{ trodden
	split	split			{ trod
Spread	{ spoiled	{ spoiled	Wake	{ waked	waked
Spring	{ spoilt	{ spoilt		{ woke	
Stand	spread	spread	Wear	wore	worn
Stave	sprung	sprung	Weave	wove	woven
	stood	stood	Weep	wept	wept
	{ staved	{ staved	Wet	wet	wet
	{ stove	{ stove	Will ¹	would	—
Steal	stole	stolen	Win	won	won
Stick	stuck	stuck	Wind	wound	wound
Sting	stung	stung	Wit	wist	—
Stink	{ stank	{ stunk	Work	{ worked	{ worked
Strew	{ stunk			{ wrought	{ wrought
	{ —	{ strewn	Wring	wrung	wrung
	strewed		Write	wrote	written
Stride	strode	stridden			
Strike	struck	{ struck			
		{ stricken			

EXERCISE 293.

1. I — it now. 2. I — it yesterday. 3. I have — it to-day.

Fill the blanks with the principal parts of the following verbs:—

Bear; beat; begin; bite; blow; break; bring; buy; catch; choose; do; draw; drink; drive; eat; find; forget; forsake; freeze; give; have; hide; know; lay; leave; make; mean; rend; ride; ring; see; seek; set; shake; show; slay; smite; sow; speak; spin; spring; strike; take; throw; weave; wear; wring; write.

¹ *Will*, meaning *bequeath*, is regular.

EXERCISE 294.

1. They may —. 2. They — yesterday. 3. They had already —.

Use the **principal parts** of the following verbs to fill the blanks:—

Become; bid; come; crow; fall; flee; fly; grow; lie; rise; raise; shine; shrink; sing; sit; slide; stand; steal; stride; strive; swear; swim; think; tread.

D. VERB-PHRASES.

SUBSTITUTES FOR INFLECTED FORMS.

475. English verbs have no changes *in form* other than those already mentioned. In some languages, the number of forms is much greater; but in English, all other variations in time, and so on, must be expressed in a round-about way by what are called *Verb-phrases*.

476. **Verb-phrases** are made by using some root-infinitive or participle as the complement of another verb. As,—

He | will go. They | have waited. She | may write.
It | is coming. It | was built.

477. The verbs that are used with infinitives and participles merely to make verb-phrases, are called **Auxiliary** (i.e., *helping*) verbs.

478. The Principal Parts of the Auxiliary verbs are,—

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE
shall	should	—	must	—	—
will	would	—	do	did	done
may	might	—	be	was	been
can	could	—	have	had	had

(a) The indicative forms used in the solemn or poetic style, with *thou* as subject, are, —

PRESENT.	PAST.		PRESENT.	PAST.
shalt	shouldst		canst	couldst
wilt	wouldst		dost, doest	didst
mayest }	mightest		art	wast, wert
mayst }			hast	hadst

1. FUTURE TENSE.

Phrases made with SHALL and WILL.

479. When we wish to predict that anything is to happen in time to come, we say, —

*I shall take; He will take;*¹

using the present tense of “shall” and of “will” to help us in expressing the idea of *taking* as **future**.

If we take the phrases apart, the real meaning will be, —

I am obliged to take; *He intends* taking, or *resolves* to take;
for *I shall* really means *I owe*, and *I will* means *I resolve*.

480. *Future Tense-phrases* are formed with *shall* or *will* and a root-infinitive, and denote future time.

481. The parts of any verb-phrase may be separated by other words; as in —

He will not go.

We shall, in all probability, fail.

Will she not sing?

Shall you and your friends remain?

482. By carefully choosing between the different uses of **shall** and **will** (§ 515), we can make future phrases that will *promise*, instead of predict.

¹ Do not think that “take” is the real verb here: “shall” or “will” is the verb, and the infinitive “take” is the object of it. The phrase that they together make is called the *future tense of the indicative*; for the auxiliaries have lost much of their original meaning, and are now little more than *signs* of the future tense.

EXERCISE 295.

Make sentences, using the **future tense** of each of these forms:—

Went; caught; drove; blown; hid; trod; rejoiced; sang; sprung; said; lied; lain; came; flew; flow.

2. POTENTIAL FORMS.

MAY, CAN, and MUST used as **Auxiliaries**.

483. **May**, **can**, and **must** are used with root-infinitives to make what are called **Potential** phrases, that express what is *possible*, *conditional*, or *obligatory*.

May implies *permission*, **can** implies *ability* or *power*, **must** implies *obligation* or *necessity*; but, as they often lose their proper meaning and become mere auxiliaries, they are given as parts of the conjugation of the verb that they help.

484. The present forms **may**, **can**, and **must** generally give a *present* meaning. Thus:—

You **may** go; *i.e.*, you have *permission* to go.

We **can** give; *i.e.*, we are *able* to give.

The engine **can** draw the train; *i.e.*, it *has the power* to draw it.

I **must** go; *i.e.*, I am *obliged* to go.

It **must** be sold; *i.e.*, the sale of it is *necessary*.

485. **May** and **can** sometimes have a *future* or *subjunctive* meaning; as in —

You **may** slip = perhaps you *will* slip.

I shall come if I **can**; *i.e.*, if it *be* possible.

486. The past forms **might** and **could** may give a *past* meaning to the phrase; as in —

He **could** not wait = he *was* not able to wait;

Or they may give a *subjunctive* meaning as of something merely thought of. Thus:—

If he were here, he **could** not wait.

He **might** be useful, though hard to manage.

487. **Should**, the past tense of “shall,” is sometimes used with a present meaning to denote a duty or obligation; as in—

You **should** do as you are bidden. [See § 519.]

488. *Potential Phrases* denote permission, power, obligation, or necessity, and are formed by using the root-infinitive with *may, can, must, might, could, would, or should*.

EXERCISE 296.

Using the infinitive of each of the following words, **make sentences containing potential phrases**, and tell whether they denote *permission, power, obligation, etc.*:—

Speak; borne; broken; chid; drew; feel; sat; froze; slain; shod; smote; swung; swept; thrust; raised; rose.

3. PERFECT TENSES.

HAVE as an Auxiliary.

489. I. Present Perfect. Whenever we wish to speak of an action as *completed at the present time*, we say,—

not “I **buy** it to-day,” but “I **have bought** it to-day,”

using the present tense of the auxiliary **have**, and the **perfect participle** of some verb. So, too,—

The town **has grown** this year.

It **has occurred** twice this century.

490. II. Past Perfect. In speaking of an action as *completed at some definite past time*, we use the past form **had** with the **perfect participle**. Thus:—

They **had gone** before I arrived.

491. III. Future Perfect. If we wish to speak of an action as already finished or *completed* at some *future* time, we use the future tense, **shall** or **will have**, with the **perfect participle**, and say,—

The sun **will have risen** before our arrival.

492. Phrases that denote completed or perfected actions are called *Perfect Tenses*, and are formed by combining the perfect participle of any verb with the various tenses of *have*.

493. Thus almost any of the forms that we have studied may be made perfect. For example:—

Simple Infinitive, (to) **do**; *Perfect Infinitive*, (to) **have done**.
Potential: *Present*, I **may go**; *Present Perfect*, I **may have gone**.

494. We see then that by inflection and by the use of auxiliaries we form **six tenses**; namely,—

Present,	Past,	Future,
Present Perfect,	Past Perfect,	Future Perfect.

EXERCISE 297.

Tell whether the verb shows present, past, or future time, and give the corresponding **perfect** form of that tense; *i.e.*, the **perfect tense-phrase**:—

1. He sings well. 2. He wrote yesterday. 3. They will go to-morrow.
4. They could not wait. 5. They should obey their parents.
6. She had an instructor. 7. We shall set out on his return. 8. Can it be true?
9. What could he answer? 10. Would he welcome you?

4. PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASES.

BE as an Auxiliary.

495. To express what is customary or habitual, we use the simpler forms of the verb; **as**,—

She **paints**, He **studied** law, They **will preach**,

but to represent an action as *continuing* or actually *in progress*, we use still another form of phrase. Thus:—

She **is painting**. He **was studying** law. They **will be preaching**.

Here the verb **be** has for its complement not an ordinary adjective, but the imperfect or active participle of the verb, and the two together make what is called a **Progressive** phrase.

496. To make a *Progressive Verb-phrase* we use the active participle of any verb as complement of the proper tense of *be*.

All the preceding forms and tenses may be made progressive. Thus:—

He may or should **try**; he may or should **be trying**.

They have or had **tried**; they have or had **been trying**.

EXERCISE 298.

Change these verbs to **progressive** verb-phrases:—

Goes; went; has gone; will go; had gone; will have gone; dye; must go; may rise; lies; lays; can sit; will wait; walked; could see; drew; shall fix; come; fought; had done; may have seen.

5. EMPHATIC VERB-PHRASES.

DO as an Auxiliary.

497. Instead of the simple present or past “He tries,” “I tried,” “Try,” we may say more emphatically, —

He **does** try, I **did** try, **Do** try;

using the verb **do**, and the infinitive “try” as the object of it. Here **do** seems to have lost its ordinary meaning.

perform, and serves only as an auxiliary to make an **Emphatic** form of the verb **try**.

498. When we ask or deny, as in **interrogative** or **negative** sentences, these phrases are almost always used instead of the simple forms. Thus, we usually say, —

Does he try? **Did** I try? He **does** not try. I **did** not try. (Not “Tries he? Tried I? He tried not, etc.”)

EXERCISE 299.

Change the following expressions to the **emphatic**, the **negative**, and the **interrogative** forms:—

1. They learn. 2. We make hats. 3. They settled the country.
4. The plan works well. 5. Their journey ended. 6. He had courage. 7. Time brings changes. 8. We drew the sword.

6. PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES.

Forms of BE as Auxiliaries.

EXERCISE 300.

1. In each sentence tell the word that shows who or what *performs* the action. **2.** Tell the word that shows who or what *receives* the action, or is affected by it. **3.** Select each subject that represents the *actor*. **4.** Select those subjects that name the *receiver* of the action. **5.** What difference do you notice in the *meaning* of each two sentences? **6.** In their *form*?

1. { The breeze *fills* the sails.
 { The sails **are filled** by the breeze.
2. { We *celebrated* the victory.
 { The victory **was celebrated** by us.
3. { Messengers *will carry* the news.
 { The news **will be carried** by messengers.
4. { The government *should protect* the Indians.
 { The Indians **should be protected** by the government.
5. { Congress *has enacted* a new tariff law.
 { A new tariff law **has been enacted** by Congress.

499. All the **verb-forms** that we have thus far studied belong to what is called the *active voice*, — that is, all of them represent what the subject names as *acting*, and not as *acted upon*, — and as there is no single form in English that has a passive meaning, we are forced to use still another kind of phrase.

500. We know that the perfect participle of transitive verbs may always have a passive meaning ; as, —

driven, spoken, hired ;

and if we use this participle as an adjective complement with different tenses of the verb **be** ; as in —

I am driven, It was spoken, You will be hired,

we form verb-phrases which represent what the subject names, not as *acting*, but as *acted upon*, and which are therefore called **Passive verb-phrases**.

501. *Passive verb-phrases* are made by using a passive participle with the various tenses of *be*, so as to represent what the subject names as receiving the action.

502. In this way any kind of verb-phrases, except the progressive, may be made passive. Thus : —

“I may see,” or “I may **be seen**.”

“They might have stopped,” or “They might have **been stopped**.”
And even progressive phrases are sometimes found in the passive form. As in —

The prisoner **was being tried** for theft.

The question is **being** very thoroughly **discussed**.

503. Active and passive forms, or “voices,” express the same thought when the **object** of the *active* form is made the **subject** of the corresponding *passive* form. Thus : —

He *heals* the **sick**. = The **sick** *are healed* by him.

Metals *are expanded* by heat. = Heat *expands* **metals**.

(a) The active form brings the *actor* into prominence; the passive, the *receiver* of the action. The passive form is generally used when the actor can not or need not be named. As, —

The watch was stolen. Lost opportunities cannot be regained.

504. A few intransitive verbs, that, in the active form, are followed by a *preposition and its object*, are sometimes made passive. In such cases the preposition, as an adverbial modifier, becomes almost a part of the verb, and its former object becomes the subject of the passive phrase. [See § 565.] Thus: —

No one **had thought of** this. This **had not been thought of**.

Our friends **laughed at** us. We **were laughed at** by them.

EXERCISE 301.

Change each verb in these sentences into either the passive or the active form, without changing the meaning: —

1. The engine draws the train. 2. The story has been told by several writers. 3. England taxed the colonies unjustly. 4. Louisiana was sold by France in 1803. 5. Marco Polo tells us strange stories. 6. The Mississippi was discovered by De Soto in 1541. 7. The prudent never waste time nor money. 8. The mortgage will be foreclosed by the executor. 9. Fire has destroyed the poor man's house. 10. Gold is purchased for coinage by the government. 11. Every patriot will defend the flag. 12. Friendship should be strengthened by adversity. 13. Would he believe the truth? 14. Paris had been besieged by the Prussians in 1871. 15. Heaven is not mounted to on wings of dreams. 16. Somebody will probably attend to the matter. 17. Will any one interfere with his rights?

505. If we add to the inflected forms of a verb the various phrases that are based upon it, we shall have what may be called the **Complete Conjugation of a Verb**.

The following tables present *at one view* all the common forms and phrases of a verb. Any verb may be conjugated by substituting its inflected forms for those of **drive**.

CONJUGATION OF Drive.

INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE MOODS.		TENSES.		COMMON FORMS.		PROGRESSIVE AND PASSIVE PHRASES.	
	INDICATIVE FORMS.					Tenses of Be.	Participles.
						am, is, or are	driving (progressive) driven (passive)
		Present.		drive or drives (driveth)		was or were	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		Past.		drove (drovest)		shall will	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		Future.		shall will drive		be	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		Present Perfect.		have driven		have has	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		Past Perfect.		had driven		been	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		Future Perfect.		shall will have driven		had	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		Present.		may, can, or must drive		shall will have been	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		Past.		might, could, would, or should } drive		may, can, or must be	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		Present Perfect.		may can have driven		might, could, would, or should } be	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		Past Perfect.		might could have driven		may can have been	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
				should		must might could would should	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		Present.		drive		be driving (pro.);	be driven (pass.)
		Past.		drove		were driving (pro.);	were driven (pass.)
		Present.		drive		be driving (pro.);	be driven (pass.)
		Impr. Mood.					

EMPHATIC (INTERROG- ATIVE OR NEGATIVE) PHRASES.	TENSES.	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPERATIVE.
	Present.	<i>do</i> or drive <i>does</i>	<i>do drive</i>	Simple <i>do drive</i> Progressive <i>do be driving</i> Passive <i>do be driven</i>
	Past.	<i>did drive</i>	<i>did drive</i>	

VERBAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

INFINITIVES.

Simple { (to) **drive**.
Perfect } **driving**.
Perfect { (to) have **driven**.
. } having **driven**.
Simple Progressive . (to) **be driving**.
Perfect Progressive . { (to) have **been driving**.
. } having **been driving**.
Simple Passive . . . (to) **be driven**.
Perfect Passive . . . { (to) have **been driven**.
. } having **been driven**.

PARTICIPLES.

(Present), Imperfect } **driving**.
(or Active)
(Past), Perfect } **driven**.
(or Passive)
Present Perfect Active. having **driven**.
Present Perfect }
Passive } having **been driven**.
Progressive Active . . . having **been driving**.
Progressive Passive? . . *being driven*.

EXERCISE 302.

1. Make a list of the (1) **potential phrases**; (2) **progressive phrases**; (3) **passive phrases**; (4) **emphatic phrases**; (5) **s-forms**; (6) **present perfect phrases**; (7) **past perfect phrases**.

Go; goes; went; have gone; has gone; will go; do go; did go; does go; are lost; are losing; was; were; were he; may be; may be seen; can be singing; must sew; could sew; sews; has done; has been done; have been doing; might be; could be heard; might be hearing; should write; should be written; should have been writing; is growing; was growing; can have been growing; would sign; had been; had brought; had been brought; stands; stood; stand; did stand; was standing; will come; shall be coming; will have lost; will be lost; has been lost; to be; is written; to be made; making; having made; being worn; to have been wearing; has had; had had; did do; does do; would have had.

2. Tell the **tense**, **mood**, and **form** of each verb-phrase. Thus:—

“May have gone” is a present perfect potential phrase of the verb *go*.

“Should be brought” is a past potential passive of the verb *bring*.

3. Give the **composition** of each phrase; *i.e.*, tell of what verb-forms it is composed. Thus:—

“Would have been broken” is made up of the past *would*, the infinitive *have*, the perfect participle *been*, and the passive participle *broken*.

EXERCISE 303.

Write the following-named forms of *bring*, *lay*, *tread*, *wear*, *obey*, *come*, *write*, *do*, *buy*, *have*:—

1. Present indicative progressive, third-singular. 2. Past indicative passive. 3. Future indicative. 4. Future indicative passive. 5. Present perfect indicative progressive, third-singular. 6. Past perfect potential passive. 7. Present indicative emphatic. 8. Past potential passive. 9. Present perfect indicative passive. 10. Present indicative (with subject “he”). 11. Present subjunctive (with “he” for subject).

506. How to Parse a Verb. A verb or verb-phrase is parsed by telling its 1. *tense*; 2. *mood*; (3. *phrase-form*;) 4. *kind*; 5. *principal parts*; (6. *number-form*, if peculiar;) and 7. *subject*.

NOTE.—This order of statement though not material is a convenient one, since it presents the facts as they appear in the successive elements of a verb-phrase.

507. Forms for Parsing. [*To be varied at the option of the teacher.*]

1. [[When] (my) ⁺ship comes [in]] I shall be rich.

2. He spoke [loud] [that ⁺they might hear him.]

3. [After we ⁺had been drifting [three days]] (a) sail was seen.
└───┬───┘

comes is the *present indicative* of the *complete* verb “come, came, come”; *s-form* with the third-singular *subject* **ship**.

shall be is the *future indicative* of the *copulative* verb “be, was, been”; its *subject* is **I**.

spoke is the *past indicative* of the *complete* verb “speak, spoke, spoken”; its *subject* is **he**.

might hear is a *past potential*¹ of the *transitive* verb “hear, heard, heard”; its *subject* is **they**.

had been drifting is the *past perfect indicative progressive* of the *complete* verb “drift, drifted, drifted”; its *subject* is **we**.

was seen is a *past indicative passive* verb-phrase formed from the *transitive* verb “see, saw, seen”; **was** is used with the *third-singular* *subject* **sail**.

EXERCISE 304.

Parse the verbs in these sentences: —

1. Where shall you be? 2. It cannot be found. 3. How busy you are. 4. Go quickly to the rear. 5. Be careful how you speak. 6. The sun might have risen. 7. No one has yet seen it. 8. Would he go if he were I? 9. Were not the drums beating? 10. You should

¹ Potential phrases have sometimes a subjunctive and sometimes an indicative meaning; but it is not expected that all learners will discriminate between the two uses.

have gone at once. 11. The mill can never grind again with the water that is past. 12. We might have been called. 13. Nothing must be assumed. 14. The train will have gone before he arrives. 15. Could he have fled alone? 16. Is it rising now? 17. Did he write at your bidding? 18. Do not be discouraged by trifles. 19. Come ye in peace, or come ye in war? 20. Ask, and it shall be given you. 21. Could it not have been found sooner? 22. I wish I were sailing the seas. 23. Have you had enough? 24. How do you do this morning? 25. He had had the money for a week. 26. I am expecting to see him soon. 27. Take heed lest he fall. 28. If he were going he would take it. 29. When he next doth ride abroad, may I be there to see. 30. You could not have been listening, or you would have heard me. 31. There never has been another such man. 32. Might it not have been done better?

SUMMARY: FORM FOR PARSING VERBS.

508.

Forms.

TENSES.		MOODS AND PHRASES.	
(1) — is the	Present	(2) {	Indicative
	Past		Subjunctive
	Future		Imperative
	Pres. Perf.		Potential
	Past Perf.	(3) {	Emphatic
	Fut. Perf.		Progressive
			Passive

Kinds.

		PRIN. PARTS.	
(4) Of (or from) the	Complete	(5)	— (Present)
	Copulative Verb,		— (Past)
	Transitive		— (Perf. Part.)

Construction.

FORM FOR SUBJECT.

(6) {	(common form) has for its subject —	} with third-singular subject —.
	s-form	
	solemn (eth) form	
	solemn (est) form with second-singular subject thou .	

E. ERRORS IN THE USE OF VERB-FORMS.

509. Wrong forms of the verb are very common. It is a prominent word, inflected more than any other part of speech, and hence leads one who is careless to make many conspicuous blunders.

510. Some of the very worst mistakes are made by substituting one of the principal parts for another.

For example: Having as principal parts, *pres. do, past did, perf. part. done*, we should say in stating a past fact, "He **did** the work," not "He **done** the work"; but in making a present perfect phrase we should say, "He has **done** the work," not "He has **did** the work."

511. Principal Parts Confused. I. *Do not use the perfect participle as a substitute for the past tense.*

II. *Never use the past tense instead of a perfect participle in making a verb-phrase.*

EXERCISE 305.

Select the proper form of the verbs, and give the reason for your choice.

1. Who (did, done) it? 2. Soon it had (sank, sunk) to rise no more. 3. The pears were all (shook, shaken) off by the wind. 4. This lace was (wove, woven) in France. 5. He (ran, run) all the way. 6. They (come, came) in late yesterday. 7. He soon (begun, began) to be weary. 8. Charles Jones (swum, swam) across the river. 9. I (saw, seen) that yours was wrong. 10. He has (risen, rose) from poverty to wealth. 11. Our club was never (beat, beaten) before. 12. If I had been (showed, shown), I should know how to do it. 13. She had (tore, torn) it off.

14. I (seen, saw) him yesterday. 15. You might have (chose, chosen) something better. 16. Our friends (come, came) last week. 17. You must do as you are (bid, bade, bidden). 18. Some (drank, drunk) too much. 19. What evil has (befallen, befell) them? 20. She may have (went, gone) to Europe. 21. Have you ever (sang, sung) this tune? 22. Have they (drank, drunk) it all? 23. Have they (broke, broken) out the roads yet?

EXERCISE 306.

Give the **principal parts** of the verb, tell which should be used, and why.

1. Have you never (*shrink*) from your duty? 2. She may have been (*smite*) down. 3. His signature was (*write*) indistinctly. 4. It cannot have been (*steal*). 5. You might have (*take*) more pains. 6. David (*sling*) the stone, and (*smite*) him on the forehead. 7. They have (*strive*) to do their best. 8. Intemperance has (*slay*) its thousands. 9. My directions were (*forget*). 10. The pond was (*freeze*) over. 11. Some one has (*break*) my pen.

512. Some verbs have somewhat similar forms that are liable to be confounded. Especial care must be taken in using them.

513. Verbs confused. *Do not use one verb for another of similar form but of different meaning.*

EXERCISE 307.

1. Learn the principal parts of these verbs, and their meaning:—

PRESENT.	PAST.	ACTIVE PART.	PERFECT PART.
lie (rest)	lay (rested)	lying (resting)	lain (rested)
lay (place)	laid (placed)	laying (placing)	laid (placed)
sit (rest)	sat (rested)	sitting (resting)	sat (rested)
set (place)	set (placed)	setting (placing)	set (placed)

2. Fill the blanks with the appropriate form of **lie** or **lay**, and its meaning. Thus:—

“I *laid* (or placed) it on the table, and there it *lies* (or rests).”

1. Where did you — it? 2. How long has it — there? 3. At what wharf does your yacht —? 4. It — on the grass yesterday. 5. It has — there for years. 6. They have — the corner-stone. 7. He — in bed till nine o'clock. 8. She has been — there all day. 9. The ship — to during the storm. 10. A thousand miles of pipe have been —.

11. She now — sleeping quietly. 12. We — over two days in Montreal. 13. — down, Bruno! 14. He — it carefully away in his safe, and there it has — ever since. 15. — it on the table, and let it — there. 16. They have been — new tracks. 17. Has it been — there long? 18. He was — by the brook. 19. The body — in state three days. 20. The city — on the left bank.

3. Fill the following blanks with the appropriate form of **sit** or **set**, and its meaning:—

1. Come into the — -room. 2. The mother-bird is — in her nest. 3. We — out twelve elms last arbor-day. 4. Where did he —? 5. I — it on the shelf, and there it — now. 6. Won't you — here? 7. He — motionless for an hour. 8. I have been — in the arbor while you have been — out your plants. 9. The court will — in June. 10. Was he — there then?

514. Improper Forms. *Never use any improper verb-forms; as, "drawed" for "drew."* [§ 92.]

EXERCISE 308.

1. Select the proper form of the verb for each of these sentences:—

1. He has (*overdraw*) his account. 2. He (*throw*) his adversary yesterday. 3. His will had been (*break*). 4. Have you (*heat*) the water? 5. Has the brook ever (*overflow*) its banks? 6. I (*know*) you would (*lay, lie*) down. 7. When was the horse (*shoe*) last? 8. He (*ain't, isn't*) as wise as he appears. 9. The moon has (*'ight*) us on our way. 10. Your coat doesn't (*set, sit, fit*) well.

2. Distinguish between (1) **born** and **borne**, (2) **durst** and **dared**, (3) **hung** and **hanged**, (4) **may** and **can**, (5) **learn** and **teach**, and use the correct form in the following blanks:—

1. He was — in Ohio. He was — to his grave by his friends. 2. The king — not sign the warrant. We — them to leap the brook. 3. Nathan Hale was — as a spy. Have the pictures been securely —? 4. — I shut the window? — you discover the reason? 5. — me to sew. My mother — me long ago.

515. Whether to use SHALL or WILL. The two auxiliaries used in making the future tense have somewhat different meanings.

516. I. *Simply to foretell that something is going to happen, use **shall** with "I" or "we," and **will** with other subjects.* Thus:—

We **shall** fail. I **shall** return in the spring.

You, he, they, etc., **will** find the journey tiresome.

517. II. *To promise or to express a determination of the speaker, use **will** with "I" or "we," and **shall** with other subjects.* Thus:—

We **will** help you. I **will** send the money.

She **shall** not go alone. They **shall** vacate the house at once.

EXERCISE 309.

Tell whether the auxiliary is used **to promise, to show determination, or simply to foretell**:—

1. I shall enter college next year. 2. I will have an education.
3. My friends will help me. 4. Nothing shall stand in my way. 5. I shall answer his letter to-morrow. 6. The letter shall be answered at once. 7. I will walk; no one shall carry me. 8. I shall walk; no one will carry me. 9. You shall go with me, if you wish. 10. We will assist you at any time. 11. I shall be punished. He shall be punished. 12. Shall you attend the fair? Will you go with me?

518. III. *In questions use the same auxiliary that would be correctly used in the reply.* Thus:—

If we wish to exact a *promise*, like "I *will* wait" or "We *will* go," we ask, "**Will** you wait or go?" But if we wish one to predict a *future action* by saying, "I *shall* go," we must ask, "**Shall** you go?"

EXCEPTION. *Will* is never used in a question with "I" or "we" as subject. Thus we say,—

"**Shall** I find you there?" not "**Will** I," etc.

"**Shall** we come early?" not "**Will** we," etc.

519. *Should and would follow the same rules as "shall" and "will."* Thus:—

I **should** not need your help, and, if I did, I **would** not ask it.

I asked him whether he **should** go or stay ("*Shall* you go or stay?"), and he said he **should** stay ("I *shall* stay").

He said that he **would** go ("I *will* go").

He feared lest he **should** fall ("I *shall* fall").

EXERCISE 310.

Fill each blank with a form of **shall** or **will**, giving the rule that guides you.

1. We — expect to hear from you. 2. If I do not study, I — grow up in ignorance. 3. They — receive the money to-morrow. 4. I was afraid that I — lose my position. 5. We — be pleased to hear that he — soon return. 6. If you telegraph, we — come at once. 7. When — we call? When — you go with me? 8. I fear that we — have unpleasant weather. 9. Where — you be next week? 10. I — like to go to town, and — go if I could. 11. I — be delighted if you — call. 12. I — have been ill if I had gone. 13. — you do as he bids you? — you do what I ask? 14. — you have sold it for that price? 15. I — have asked for more time.

520. Subjunctive forms are peculiar only —

(1) In always omitting the endings **s**, **st**, **eth**, of the corresponding indicative;

(2) In that **BE** is used in place of **am**, **art**, **is**, or **are**, and **WERE** in place of **was**, **wast**, or **wert**.

521. Present Subjunctive forms are now used chiefly in clauses expressing a supposition or a condition to be decided in the future. As in —

If he **ask** a pardon, shall you grant it?

If he **go**, he will not be missed.

In such clauses, indicative forms are also used by good writers and speakers.

522. Past Subjunctive forms must be used in clauses expressing a supposition or a wish contrary to the fact.

As in —

If he **were** ready (but he is not), he could go.

I wish I **were** well (but I am not).

(a) Indicative forms must be used to express what is *assumed* as a fact. As in —

If he **intends** to go, he should go now.

Though he **is** far from well, he is industrious.

If he **was** poor, he was honest.

EXERCISE 311.

Fill the blank with what seems **the appropriate form of the verb** *be*, and give the reason for your choice.

1. What would she say if she — asked? 2. I wish I — ten years younger. 3. If the book — in the library, you may take it. 4. If the book — in the library, you might take it. 5. O that it — possible! 6. If he — needy, we should help him. 7. Though he — needy, he will get no help. 8. If he — insane, his actions do not show it. 9. If I — to be defeated, I should still persevere. 10. It would be a great disgrace if he — to fail. 11. I will come to-morrow if the weather — fine. 12. I will call upon him if he — now at home. 13. Take care lest it — injured.

Errors in the Use of the *s*-form of Verbs.

523. We have learned that the *s*-form of verbs is never used except in the present tenses of the indicative mood, with subjects that in meaning are of the third person and of the singular number.

524. General Rule. *A third-singular subject, and no other, requires the s-form of the verb.*

It will be understood that this rule can apply only to the present indicative tenses.

525. Was. Use *was* with "I" or a third-singular subject, but never with "you" or any plural subject.

EXERCISE 312.

Choose the correct form in the following sentences, and justify your choice. Thus:—

"He (don't, doesn't) try." The third-singular subject "he" requires *does*, the s-form of the verb *do*. Say "He *doesn't* try."

"There (has, have) never been many of that kind." "Many" is not a third-singular subject, hence the s-form *has* would be improper. The sentence should read, "There never *have* been many," etc. RULE: A third-singular subject, and *no other* requires the s-form of the verb.

1. Neither of them (were, was) correct. 2. From that source (comes, come) all our troubles. 3. It (don't, doesn't) take long to cross the ocean. 4. (Was, were) you at the concert last night? 5. My scissors (needs, need) sharpening. 6. The memoranda (is, are) lost. 7. There (has, have) been many disappointments on this trip. 8. The fragrance of roses (fill, fills) the air. 9. Each of the states (have, has) two senators. 10. Either of those reasons (are, is) sufficient. 11. Harder times never (were, was) seen. 12. The six days' work (was, were) ended. 13. What (has, have) become of your friends? 14. The meaning of these words (are, is) easily found. 15. Which of these fractions (are, is) the larger? 16. Everybody (have, has) offered us congratulations. 17. There (is, are) a few more to be had. 18. There (has, have) been several lost on these rocks.

526. It is the meaning rather than the form of a subject that affects the form of the verb. For example, in the sentence—

The Three Clerks was written by Anthony Trollope,
the subject is singular in meaning, for it names a single book.

527. 1. Collective nouns are generally singular in meaning. Thus:—

The jury renders its verdict. Our regiment loses its colonel.

Here we refer to the collection as a *whole* or *unit*, and the s-form of the verb is required.

2. Sometimes, however, we refer to actions of the *individuals* in the collection. Thus:—

The jury **have** returned to **their** homes.

The regiment **hold** different opinions of him.

Here the meaning is plural, and the **s**-form of the verb would be wrong.

528. Collective Subjects require the **s**-form of the verb only in referring to the collection as a unit.

EXERCISE 313.

Tell which form of the verb should be used here, and give your reason:—

1. The army (was, were) nearly annihilated.
2. The band (has, have) brought (its, their) instruments.
3. (Is, are) your family well?
4. The committee (was, were) unanimous in the choice
5. The fleet (was, were) separated.
6. The whole herd ran into the sea and (was, were) drowned.
7. Our club (hold, holds) (its, their) meetings every month.
8. (Have, has) the company broken up?
9. A large number (was, were) dissatisfied.
10. The number present (were, was) large.

Connected Subjects.

529. Singular expressions joined by **and** are generally taken together as a plural subject. Thus:—

He and I **are** going. *Industry and perseverance* **win** success.

Making laws and enforcing them **are** very different.

530. Subjects joined by AND. Use the **s**-form of the verb with singular subjects connected by **and**—only

(1) *When they name the same person or thing; or*

(2) *When they are preceded by each, every, many a, or no.*

For example:—

- (1) My *friend and helper* **has** deserted me.
- (1) A *wheel and axle* **transmits** the power.
- (2) *Each* lady and gentleman **has** received a copy.
- (2) *Every* city and town **was** visited.

531. Subjects joined by OR or NOR. Use the *s-form* of the verb with third-singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor*.

Thus:—

One *or* the other **visits** London annually.

Neither money *nor* influence **was** needed.

EXERCISE 314.

Select the proper form of the verb, and justify your selection.
Thus:—

“Neither hope nor courage *remains*.” The *s-form* is here required, for the subject consists of two singular nouns, “hope” and “courage,” which are joined by *nor*, and hence are to be taken separately.

“Both hope and courage *are* needed.” The *s-form* of the verb would be wrong, for the two nouns “hope” and “courage” joined by *and* make a plural subject.

“Every boy and girl *has* recited.” The connected nouns “boy” and “girl” make a third-singular subject, for they are preceded by the adjective *every*, and so are to be taken separately. Hence the *s-form* of the verb is required.

1. In every muscle there (is, are) strength and vigor. 2. Every beggar and spendthrift (receive, receives) his aid. 3. Neither father nor mother (was, were) living. 4. Every word and even every thought (is, are) known. 5. Each day and hour (bring, brings) (its, their) duties. 6. The rise and fall of the tide (are, is) to be explained. 7. The butcher and the baker (has, have) sent in (his, their) (bill or bills). 8. There (is, are) fighting and bloodshed on the frontier. 9. A thousand dollars (are, is) too much to pay. 10. There (were, was) neither anger nor impatience in his tone. 11. To seem and to be (is, are) not always the same. 12. A beautiful poem or picture (has, have) a refining influence.

13. Whether to advance or to retreat (were, was) the question. 14. No pains and no expense (have, has) been spared. 15. Each hour, dark fraud or open rapine or protected murder (cry, cries) out against them. 16. Every leaf and flower (has, have) faded

17. His subject and mine (was, were) the same. 18. There (sleep sleeps) the soldier, statesman, and martyr. 19. Wave after wave (come, comes) rolling in. 20. Neither oil nor alcohol (are, is) as heavy as water.

532. *When subjects connected by or or nor differ in person or number, the one nearest the verb generally controls its form. Thus:—*

Neither she nor **I am** invited. Either you or he **knows** it.

Are you or he going? Neither he nor his **children were** saved.

Expressions like these should generally be avoided. Thus:—

She is not invited, nor am I.

533. *Of two subjects connected by as well as the first one controls the form of the verb that is expressed, and the second that of a verb understood. Thus:—*

The **captain**, as well as the crew, **was** lost.

The **crew**, as well as the captain, **were** sick.

534. *Of two subjects, one affirmative and the other negative, the affirmative one controls the form of the verb expressed, and the negative one that of a verb understood. Thus:—*

Not I but **he is** the one to go. Not he but **I am** going. The **warriors**, but not the chief, **were** present. Not only this habit, but all similar **ones are** pernicious.

535. *As a relative pronoun has no form for number or person, the sense of the antecedent controls the form of the verb. Thus:—*

"I that speak unto you **am** he." **"O Thou who changest not!"**

"Our Father who art in heaven."

EXERCISE 315.

Select the proper form of the verb, and give the rule that guides you.

1. Equity, as well as justice, (demand, demands) it. 2. One or more persons (was, were) injured. 3. His painting was one of the best that (was, were) exhibited. 4. Not the causes, but the result, (were, was) stated. 5. You or he (are, is) to go. 6. Either he or I (is, am) to go.

CHAPTER XIX.

ADVERBS.

[Review §§ 166-172.]

A. KINDS.

536. As to Meaning. There are many adverbs, and they modify in many different ways; yet they may all be divided, according to their *meaning*, into four principal classes:—

- | | |
|------------------------------|---|
| 1. Adverbs of Time. | As, <i>now, then, always, never, next, last.</i> |
| 2. Adverbs of Place. | As, <i>here, there, down, hence, above.</i> |
| 3. Adverbs of Manner. | As, <i>well, ill, thus, so, slowly, wisely, freely.</i> |
| 4. Adverbs of Degree. | As, <i>much, very, almost, too, scarcely, quite.</i> |

537. As to Use. With respect to their *use*, adverbs may be classified as **Simple** when they merely modify, and as **Conjunctive** when they also connect.

EXERCISE 316.

1. What is a clause? 2. What kinds of clauses have you studied?
3. What is an adjective clause? 4. What is a noun-clause? 5. What is a conjunctive pronoun? 6. A relative pronoun? 7. Give the meaning of *when, where, whence, whither, why, how*, in the form of a phrase.

8. Point out the adjective clauses in the following expressions, and tell what each modifies:—

1. The place on which they stood —
2. The time at which they started —
3. The town from which they came —
4. The land to which they went —
5. The reason for which they fled —

9. What does each prepositional phrase modify? 10. Substitute a single word for each phrase. 11. What does the substituted word modify? 12. To what part of speech does it therefore belong?

538. From the preceding Exercise we see that in *adjective clauses* certain adverbs may be used as the equivalent of a phrase made with a conjunctive pronoun and a preposition. Thus:—

This is the house **where** (in which) I was born.

Here, as we know, "which" would connect the clause to *house*, and "in which" would modify *was born* like an adverb; so its equivalent **where** does this double duty of modifying and connecting.

539. Adverbs like **when, where, whence, whither, why, how**, that both modify a verb and at the same time connect a clause, are called **Conjunctive** adverbs.

So with *wherewith, whereon, whereby*, and other compounds of *where* and a preposition.

(a) Conjunctive adverbs used in adjective clauses may be called *relative adverbs*.

EXERCISE 317.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Do you know who it is? | 4. Tell me what he wants. |
| 2. Do you know where it is? | 5. Tell me when he came. |
| 3. Do you know why he went? | 6. Tell me whence he came. |

1. In the first three sentences, what is the object of "do know"?
 2. In the last three sentences, what is the object of "tell"? 3. What kind of clauses may be used as objects? 4. Parse "who" and "what."
 5. What two uses has each? 6. How are the other noun-clauses connected to the rest of the sentence? 7. To what part of speech do *where, why, when, whence*, belong? 8. What do they modify? 9. What have you learned to call such words when they also serve to connect?

540. From the foregoing illustrations we see that *noun-clauses* also may be joined to the rest of the sentence by conjunctive adverbs. Thus:—

Show me **how** (= in what way) *the problem is solved*.

Here **how** is a conjunctive adverb; for it takes the place both of the conjunctive adjective "what" and of the phrase "in what way," which modifies *is solved* like an **adverb**.

EXERCISE 318.

- | | | | |
|------|--------------------------------------|------|--|
| 1. { | Go early. | 2. { | He died here. |
| { | Go at dawn. | { | He died at his birthplace. |
| { | Go [when] <u>day</u> <u>breaks</u> . | { | He died [where] <u>he</u> <u>was</u> born. |

1. In the first group of sentences what tells *when* one is "to go"?
 2. What kind of modifiers answers the question "when"? 3. Which of the adverb modifiers in the first group is a clause? Why? 4. In the second group what answers the question "*Where* did he die"?
 5. What kind of modifiers tells *where*? 6. Which modifier in the second group is a clause? Analyze it. 7. Like what part of speech is it used? 8. What then will you call it?

541. The preceding Exercise shows us that a clause may do the work of an *adverb* as well as that of an adjective or a noun, by showing *when*, *where*, *why*, and so on. Thus:—

Go **whenever** (= at whatever time) *he* calls.

Stand still **wherever** (= in whatever place) *you* are.

Fight **as** (= in what way) *a hero* fights.

These clauses, like adverbs, show *when*, *where*, and *how* one is "to go," "to stand," or "to fight," and are therefore called **Adverb-clauses**.

They are joined to the verb of the sentence either by conjunctive adverbs or simply by conjunctions. [See § 579.]

542. An *Adverb-clause* is one used in a sentence like an adverb.

543. A *Conjunctive* adverb is one that modifies some word in a clause, and connects the clause to the rest of the sentence.

544. A *Simple* adverb is one that modifies without connecting.

EXERCISE 319.

1. Select the **clauses**, and tell their kind.

2. Point out the **adverbs**, tell their **kind** and **what they modify**.

1. When does the moon change? 2. Can you tell wherein they differ? 3. Who knows whence he came? 4. Where there is a will there is a way. 5. When the wine is in, the wit is out. 6. I know a bank where the wild thyme grows. 7. Whither I go ye know not. 8. Come as the waves come when navies are stranded. 9. Thou canst not tell whence it cometh nor whither it goeth. 10. He works where the sun never shines. 11. Can you tell why the tides rise and fall? 12. They are found in lands where frost is unknown. 13. How can the stream be turned? 14. Whither thou goest I will go, and where thou lodgest I will lodge. 15. When the pyramids were built is uncertain. 16. I must know when he goes, where he goes, and how he goes. 17. This is the place where Franklin was born.

545. Interrogative Adverbs. The adverbs *how, when, where, why, whither, whence*, when used to introduce a question, may be called *interrogative adverbs*. As in —

How is it done? **When** did it happen? **Whence** came he?

546. Modal Adverbs. Certain adverbs, like **not, surely, certainly, perhaps, indeed**, etc., are sometimes used to show that a statement is made in a positive or negative or doubtful way. Thus:—

Surely you will not leave me. **Perhaps** he knows no better.

When so used they may be called *modal adverbs*.

547. Responsives. The words **yes, yea, no, nay**, used as responses to questions, were once used like adverbs. We may call them *responsives*: but, like interjections, they do not properly belong to the parts of speech, being used now in the place of entire sentences. Thus:—

“Are you coming?” **Yes**; (that is, “I am coming”).

548. Phrase-adverbs. Some little phrases, generally used as adverbs, cannot well be separated, and may be called *phrase-adverbs*. Among them are the following:—

At length; at last; at all; at once; as yet; by far; for good; at least in general; in vain; in short; of old; of late; from below; etc.

549. There. The adverb *there* is frequently used without much of its original meaning to introduce a sentence in which the verb comes before its subject. Thus:—

There were a thousand there.

When so used it may be called an *expletive*. [See page 153.]

B. INFLECTION AND USES.

550. Comparison. Adverbs have, in general, no change of form. A few, however, are **compared** like adjectives. Thus:—

soon, **sooner**, **soonest**; often, **oftener**, **oftenest**.

(a) The adverbs **ill**, **far**, **little**, **much**, **near**, **well**, are compared irregularly like the adjectives of the same form. [See § 398.]

551. Many adverbs that are not compared may have a comparative or superlative meaning added by the use of **more** and **most**, or **less** and **least**. As, —

quickly, *more* quickly, *most* quickly; *less* quickly, *least* quickly.

552. An adverb may modify not only a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, but also an infinitive, a participle, a preposition, a phrase, a clause, or even an entire sentence, as we have seen in § 546.

553. Parsing Adverbs. To parse an adverb we have only to tell (1) its *kind*, and (2) *what it modifies*; the *form* (3) need be mentioned only when comparative or superlative.

EXAMPLE. We work [more cheerfully] [[when] ⁺ we are [well] paid]

more is a *simple* adverb in the *comparative* degree; *used* to modify the adverb **cheerfully**.

cheerfully is a *simple* adverb modifying the verb **work**.

when is a *conjunctive* adverb modifying the verb **are paid**.

554.

SUMMARY: ADVERBS.

Kinds.	Forms.	Uses.
Simple	Positive	Modifies the
Conjunctive	Comparative	Verb, Part., Inf. —.
[Interrogative]	Superlative	Adjective —.
[Modal]		Adverb —.
		Preposition, etc. —.

EXERCISE 320.

Point out the adverbs, and show exactly **what each modifies**.

1. Springing lightly into his saddle, he rode rapidly away. 2. It is lawful to do well on the sabbath day. 3. They live just beyond the mill. 4. He sailed nearly round the world. 5. How quickly night comes on! 6. Do precisely as you are bidden. 7. The paths of glory lead but to the grave. 8. Assuredly he cannot be mistaken. 9. Perhaps you will have no other opportunity. 10. The tunnel extends almost through the mountain.

C. ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADVERBS.

555. Adjective for Adverb. *Never use an adjective where an adverb is required. Thus:—*

“He reads slow and distinct” is wrong. The adjectives “slow” and “distinct” should not be used to describe the manner of reading. The sentence should be “He reads *slowly* and *distinctly*.”

556. Adverb for Predicate-adjective. *Never use an adverb in place of an adjective to complete a copulative verb.*

"Miss Ward looked beautifully" is wrong. "Looked" is a copulative verb, for the meaning is "She *was* beautiful in appearance." We should therefore use a predicate adjective, and say, "Miss Ward looked beautiful."

557. Double Negatives. *Use only one negative in making a denial.*

"He has never had nothing to do with it" should be "He has never had *anything* to do with it." The two negatives neutralize each other, and spoil the meaning of the sentence.

(a) Never use such expressions as "I *don't scarcely* ever go," or "We do *not hardly* expect it," when the meaning is, "I scarcely ever go," or "I hardly expect it."

(b) Such expressions as "We are *not unmindful* of your kindness;" "He is *never unwilling* to learn" are right, and convey just the meaning intended. What is the meaning?

558. Adverbial expressions should be so placed in the sentence as to convey just the meaning intended. Compare—

Only the address can be written on this side (nothing else).

The address can **only** be written on this side (not printed).

The address can be written on *this* side **only** (not on the other).

EXERCISE 321.

Point out the errors in these sentences, giving the rule violated:—

1. A miser gives nothing to nobody. 2. I never hear from him scarcely. 3. How sweetly the music sounds! 4. He was tolerable well-informed. 5. The princess looked beautifully. 6. We reached home safely and soundly. 7. Did not the young man appear awkwardly? 8. We shall not go this week, I don't think. 9. This water tastes strongly of sulphur. 10. The fruit looks well; but it tastes badly. 11. How strangely everything seems in this light! 12. Do you feel badly?

Say rather "Do you feel *ill, tired, unhappy?*" "Bad" is indefinite and ambiguous.

13. The children were very pleased with their presents. He was too confused to speak.

Very and *too* should never be used to modify a participle.

CHAPTER XX.

PREPOSITIONS.

[Review pages 113–118.]

559. Prepositions are comparatively few in number; and, though they do not themselves modify other words, they are necessary *to show how different ideas are related to each other*. They help to make phrases that modify like adjectives and adverbs.

560. The **object** of a preposition may be, —

1. **A Noun:** The farmers are **at** *work* **in** the *field*.
- or some expression equivalent to a noun; as, —
2. **A Pronoun:** I went **from** *you* **to** *her*.
3. **An Infinitive:** Thank him **för** *doing* the errand.
4. **A Phrase:** The Indians fired **from** *behind the trees*.
5. **A Clause:** I am surprised **at** *what you say*.

(a) The object sometimes precedes the preposition, especially in poetry. Thus: —

The heavy night hung dark the *hills* and *waters* **o'er**.

Uses of Prepositional Phrases.

561. A prepositional phrase may be used like an **adjective** —

(1) *To modify a noun or a pronoun*; as in —

There is no hope **of** *rescue*. Which **of** *you* will go?

or (2) *As a subjective complement*; as in —

Your friend is **in good spirits**. They are **of great service**.
 (a) When used as an adjective, it may be called an *adjective phrase*.

562. A prepositional phrase may be used like an **adverb** to modify —

1. **A Verb:** Go **in haste** | **to the town** | **for the doctor**
2. **An Infinitive:** To waste **in youth** is to want in age.
3. **A Participle:** Bees coming **to hives** laden **with honey**.
4. **An Adjective:** The narrative is full **of interest**.
5. **An Adverb:** She did well **for a beginner**.

(a) When used as an adverb, it may be called an *adverb-phrase*.

563. A prepositional phrase may be used like a **noun**, as subject, object, etc., — especially after *from*. Thus: —

They came *from across the seas*.

Out of sight is out of mind.

EXERCISE 322.

Point out the prepositional phrases in Exercise 333, and tell whether they are used as adjectives or as adverbs.

564. Phrase-prepositions. Some little phrases are so much like single prepositions in their use, that, instead of separating them, we may call them *phrase-prepositions*. Thus: —

from It crawled out of from out	}	a hole.	In As to As for	}	color, this is perfect.
--	---	---------	--	---	-------------------------

The following are some of the phrases most commonly used as prepositions: —

According to; as to; as for; along with; instead of; out of; in spite of; in front of; by means of; on board; etc.

565. Prepositions as Adverbs or Conjunctions. Most of the prepositions were once adverbs, and are often used as such. Thus: —

It isn't worth talking **about**. How was it disposed **of**?

Sometimes they become conjunctions [§ 579]. Thus:—

Stay **till** I come. We started **before** the moon rose.

566. Parsing Prepositions. A preposition is parsed (1) by stating *that it is a preposition*, and (2) by showing *how it is used*.

These forms may be followed:—

[In his garden] grew flowers (of every hue).

in is a preposition, used with its object **garden** to make a phrase that modifies **grew**.

of is a preposition, used with its object **hue** to make a phrase modifying **flowers**.

EXERCISE 323.

1. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences.

2. What words are here **adverbs** that are often prepositions?

1. From peak to peak the rattling crags among leaps the live thunder. 2. This is the house that he lives in. 3. Come on; let us go in. 4. Will you stay till after dinner? 5. These jewels came from across the sea. 6. As to that, men differ in opinion. 7. He ran from under the tree. 8. All excepting him have gone. 9. But one remains. 10. All but one have gone. 11. There is nothing to be done now but to retreat. 12. Quit yourselves like men. 13. Look the whole world over, and you will not find it. 14. Judging from what he says, I believe him honest.

3. Parse the prepositions in any of the Exercises in this book.

567. Errors in the use of Prepositions. Care must be taken to use *appropriate prepositions*. Thus:—

Between refers to *two* objects: Divide the money *between* the two claimants.

Among refers to *more than two* objects: Divide the money *among* the crew.

Into and **to** follow verbs of *motion*; **in** and **at** verbs of *rest*: Go *into* the house and remain *in* it. He is *at* home.

Say "I met him **in** the street," "*in* the car," "*in* the train," "*in* a steamboat," rather than "*on* the street," etc.

Say "different **from**," not "different *to*" nor "different *than*"; as, "Mine is different *from* yours."

568. *Do not use prepositions needlessly nor omit them when they are required. Thus:—*

I do not wish *for* your services. Omit *for*.

The book is no use *to* me. Say "*of* no use."

EXERCISE 324.

1. Fill the blank with a **suitable preposition** if one is needed.

1. This work is different — any that have appeared. 2. When shall you be — home? 3. I should have gone if I had been able —. 4. Do smell — these flowers. 5. The signing — that note was a mistake. 6. Let us go — the park. 7. His answer was very different — yours. 8. I could prevail — him to go. 9. Try to profit — the failures of others. 10. There is constant rivalry — the four roads. 11. He differed — his friends. 12. We arrived — a late train, and stayed — the hotel till morning. 13. — what street do you live? 14. Virtue and vice differ widely — each other. 15. How do you reconcile such actions — what he said? 16. First become reconciled — thy brother. 17. Is he worthy — your confidence? 18. He plays — the organ very skilfully. 19. It is — no use to try.

2. **Point out the errors** in these sentences:—

1. Do you intend to sing or no? 2. Most all men are ambitious.

Never use *most* when you mean *almost*.

3. I never liked neither him nor his opinions. 4. You are too frightened to be of any use. 5. Three of the crew only reached the shore. 6. He desired to be rich very much. 7. I shall be glad to see you always. 8. There only was a solitary fort where Chicago stands fifty years ago. 9. Deaf mutes can only talk with their hands or lips or eyes. 10. Leave more space between each column. 11. "A preposition is a bad word to end a sentence with." [§ 97.]

CHAPTER XXI.

CONJUNCTIONS.

[Review pages 119-122.]

569. Since we first defined conjunctions (§ 191) we have studied several other kinds of connective words:—

(1) The **conjunctive pronouns** *who, which, that, what*, etc., which, while they connect, also do the work of nouns and pronouns;

(2) The **conjunctive adverbs** *when, where, while*, etc., which, besides connecting, always modify; and—

(3) The **prepositions**, which show the relation between words.

We now come to genuine **Conjunctions**, the chief use of which is to *connect* the parts of compound and complex sentences.

KINDS.

570. Conjunctions are divided according to their use into two classes: (1) **co-ordinating** conjunctions, that connect the parts of a sentence so that they remain *alike in rank* or construction; and (2) **subordinating** conjunctions, that make one of the connected parts dependent upon or *a part of* the other.

“Co-ordinate” means *of equal rank*; “subordinate,” *of inferior rank*.

571. I. Co-ordinating conjunctions are used to connect (1) *The members of a compound sentence*. Thus:—

The floods came, **and** the winds blew, **but** it fell not.

We must overcome evil, **or** it will overcome us.

(2) *Words, phrases, and clauses having the same construction.* Thus:—

Bright **and** happy children were running **or** playing there.

True friends are the same in prosperity **and** in adversity.

I do not know when he came **nor** whither he went.

(a) Co-ordinating conjunctions are sometimes used at the beginning of a separate sentence to connect it in meaning with what precedes.

572. We give the name co-ordinating conjunctions *first* to **and**, **but**, **or**, **nor**, which do nothing but connect; *secondly*, to certain words which, though they retain their adverbial meaning, serve principally to show the connection between the members of a compound sentence. Thus:—

I do not believe in the change; **however**, I shall not oppose it.

(a) *Therefore, hence, still, besides, consequently, yet, likewise, moreover, else, then, also, accordingly, nevertheless, notwithstanding, etc.*, are words of this kind. Try to form sentences beginning with them, and you will see that they refer to what has been said before in each case.

573. A *Co-ordinating conjunction* is one that joins sentences or parts of sentences having the same rank.

574. We can if we wish divide all co-ordinating conjunctions into four classes:—

1. *Copulative*, or such as merely join together, like **and**.
2. *Alternative*, or such as offer a choice between two, like **or**.
3. *Adversative*, or such as imply that one part is opposed to the other, like **but**.
4. *Causal*, or such as assign a cause, a reason, a result, etc., like **for**.

575. Correlatives. Some conjunctions, called *correlatives*, are used in pairs, one before each of the connected parts to make their connection more evident. Thus:—

I have **both** seen **and** heard the orator.

They are to meet us **either** in Paris **or** in London.

Give me **neither** poverty **nor** riches.

Whether to go **or** to return is the question.

NOTE. The first word of each pair may be parsed as an auxiliary or *assistant* conjunction helping the other to do the connecting.

EXERCISE 325.

Point out the conjunctions, and explain what each connects.

1. He is liberal, but he is not generous. 2. They are poor, yet they are not needy. 3. Both he and I are going. 4. I believed; therefore have I spoken. 5. That route is dangerous: besides we have no guide. 6. The book is not perfect: still it is very helpful. 7. Either Hamlet was insane, or he feigned insanity. 8. The sea is rough, for I hear the surf. 9. He yields neither to force nor to persuasion.

10. The fault is neither yours nor mine, but theirs. 11. I have had experience both in sickness and in health. 12. But I can never be natural enough, even when there is the most occasion. 13. As to the book you mention, I am in doubt whether to read it or not. 14. *We* cannot go, nor should *you*. 15. He is a genius, though he does not seem so.

576. Punctuation. RULE.—*When the members of a compound sentence are long, or much like separate sentences, the semicolon or the colon must be used between them instead of the comma.* [See § 189.]

577. Subordinating Conjunctions. If we unite the sentences, —

Rain has fallen. The grass is wet,

by the co-ordinating conjunction “and”; thus, —

Rain has fallen, **and** the grass is wet,

we make a compound sentence with co-ordinate members; that is, with members of equal rank. But if we unite them by the conjunction “because”; thus, —

The grass is wet, **because** rain has fallen,

we change their relation and rank, and make one of them

an *adverb-clause* that gives a reason for the other, by telling *why* the grass is wet.

So too in the sentences, —

It will dry **after** *the sun has risen*. (When?)

We must hasten, **that** *we may meet our friends*. (Why?)

We shall wait **if** *they have not come*. (On what condition?)

the conjunctions **after**, **that**, **if**, change what might be independent sentences into adverb-clauses that modify verbs by showing *when*, *why*, *on what condition*, etc.

578. Conjunctions of this kind connect two sentences by changing one of them into a clause which becomes part of the other, and they are therefore called **subordinating**.

579. Most subordinating conjunctions are used to make *adverb-clauses*, which may modify in a variety of ways. Thus, they may denote: —

1. **Time**: We waited *after* $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{before, since,} \\ \textit{till, until, ere,} \end{array} \right\}$ *you came*.
2. **Cause** or **Reason**: I will go *because* $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{for, since, as,} \\ \textit{inasmuch as,} \end{array} \right\}$ *you ask it*.
3. **Manner**: Work *as if* (*as though*) *you were paid*.
4. **Comparison**: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{The nights are longer } \textit{than the days [are].} \\ \text{Venus is more distant } \textit{than the moon [is].} \end{array} \right.$
5. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textbf{Condition,} \\ \textbf{Concession, etc.:} \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{I will go if } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{unless} \\ \textit{provided} \end{array} \right\} \text{ he needs me.} \\ \textit{Though (although) he is poor he is content.} \end{array} \right.$
6. **Purpose** or **Result**: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Take good care } \textit{that (lest) they escape.} \\ \text{Exercise daily, } \textit{that you may grow strong.} \end{array} \right.$

580. The subordinating conjunction **that** (and sometimes **whether**) is often used in making a noun-clause Thus the sentences.—

He was wrong. We knew that fact,

when united by *that* become —

We knew **that** *he was wrong*.

So —

Ask **whether** *the steamer has sailed*.

581. A Subordinating conjunction is one that changes an assertion into a clause, and connects it to the rest of the sentence.

582. Phrase-conjunctions. Some little phrases are used to connect like single words. For example: —

Corn **as well as** wheat may be raised here.

I shall go **inasmuch as** he has invited me.

The most common phrase-conjunctions are *as if, as though, as well as, forasmuch as, provided that, seeing that, so that, in order that*, etc.

583. Parsing Conjunctions. In parsing a conjunction we are to tell (1) its *kind*, and (2) *what it connects*. The following forms may be used: —

1. He spoke and acted [⁺as if (his) life were in danger].

and is a *co-ordinating* conjunction, and connects the two verbs **spoke** and **acted**.

as if is a *subordinating* phrase-conjunction, and connects the adverb-clause to **spoke** and **acted**, which it modifies.

2. [⁺After we had sailed] we found that (the) ship leaked.

after is a *subordinating* conjunction, and connects the adverb-clause to **found**, which it modifies.

that is a *subordinating* conjunction, and joins the noun-clause to **found**, of which it is the object.

584. Adverb-phrases or adverb-clauses that precede the words which they modify are generally set off by commas. Thus: —

When the sun had set, we returned to our homes.

The sun having set, they resumed their journey.

Shortly after sunset, the storm abated.

585. Punctuation. RULE. — *Adverb-modifiers must generally be set off by commas unless they are very short or immediately follow the word that they modify.*

586. SUMMARY: FORMS FOR PARSING.

Kinds. — is a $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Co-ordinating} \\ \text{Subordinating} \\ \text{Correlative} \end{array} \right\}$ Conjunction;

Uses. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{It connects the co-ordinate} \\ \text{It connects the adverb- (or noun-) clause to} \\ \text{It helps} \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{words} \text{ — and —} \\ \text{phrases} \text{ — and —} \\ \text{clauses} \text{ — and —} \\ \text{members} \text{ — and —} \end{array} \right.$
 — to connect — and —.

EXERCISE 326.

1. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences.

2. Analyze the sentences, and **parse the conjunctions.**

1. Though I admire his courage, I detest his cruelty. 2. Remain until sunset. 3. Do not go until the sun has set. 4. Think twice before you speak. 5. I have not seen my friend since he returned from Dublin. 6. If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes. 7. I am proud that I am an American. 8. We know that the moon is uninhabited. 9. That the moon is uninhabited is well known.

10. The fact that the moon is uninhabited is well known. 11. It is well known that the moon is not inhabited. 12. The fact is that the moon has no inhabitants. 13. As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him. 14. Come down ere my child die. 15. It is more than heart can bear. 16. Language was given us that we might say pleasant things to each other. 17. If spring is without blossoms, autumn will be without fruit. 18. It was so cold that the mercury froze. 19. He failed in business because he was dishonest.

587. Errors in the Use of Conjunctions. Observe these rules:—

1. *Do not use or for nor as the correlative of neither.*

“Neither you *or* I” should be “Neither you *nor* I.”

2. *Do not use like instead of as or as if.*

He acted *like* (as if) he was crazy. Sing *like* (as) I do.

3. *Do not use but for than after other or any comparative word.*

I have no *other* friend *but* (than) you; or, I have no friend *but* you.

4. *Do not use but what for that or but that.*

I have no doubt *but what* (that) he did it.

5. *Do not use if when you mean whether.*

See *if* (whether) he can go.

EXERCISE 327.

1. Supply an appropriate conjunction.

1. I have no other reason — this. 2. I did not know but — you were busy. 3. He will neither come in — go out. 4. Is there no one else — he to go? 5. He no sooner sees me, — he runs to meet me. 6. He walked — he was lame. 7. He did not deny but — he owed the money. 8. I can't say — he will be here or not.

2. Try to answer the following questions:—

1. What may the object of a preposition be? 2. Give examples. 3. What parts of speech may the phrase resemble? 4. Use one as adjective, as complement, as adverb. 5. Explain the difference between prepositions and conjunctions. 6. Between the two kinds of conjunctions. 7. Discriminate between the italicized words in “*after* sunset,” and “*after* the sun had set”; in “I have not seen him *since* noon,” and “*Since* it is true, he must go.” 8. In “Act as you feel”; “*As* I looked, it fell”; “She is not so tall *as* you,” *as* is a conjunctive adverb. In “*As* life is short, improve it,” *as* is a conjunction; and in “This is such *as* I want,” *as* is a pronoun. Try to explain why.

CHAPTER XXII.

INTERJECTIONS, Etc.

588. We call interjections one of the parts of speech because they are spoken and written as words; but they cannot enter into the construction of sentences, being only “thrown in between” them.

They are half-way between ordinary language and the language of coughing, laughing, crying, and so on, which they are made to imitate.

589. Among commonly-written interjections are included —

I. Words used instead of an assertion to express **feeling** of various kinds:—

- (a) *Surprise or wonder*; as, **oh, ah, lo, whew.**
- (b) *Pleasure, joy, exultation*; as, **oh, ah, aha, hey, hurrah.**
- (c) *Pain, sadness, sorrow*; as, **oh, ah, alas, alack, lack-a-day.**
- (d) *Contempt, disgust*; as, **pshaw, fie, fudge, pooh, ugh, bah.**

II. Words used instead of a **question**; as, **eh? ah? hey?**

III. Words used instead of a **command**:—

- (a) *To call attention*, as, **O, lo, ho, hem, hollo, ahoy.**
- (b) *To silence*; as, **hist, hush, whist, 'st, mum.**
- (c) *To direct, expel, and so on*; as, **whoa, gee, haw, scat.**

IV. Words used to **imitate** sounds made by animals, machines, and so on. As,—

**bow-wow, ba-a-a, pop, bang, ding-dong, rub-a-dub, whiz,
whir-r, patter.**

Notice the sound of such verbs and nouns as **grunt, buzz, roar, crash, hiss, puff.**

Other Exclamatory Words.

590. Many ordinary words and phrases are often used independently as mere exclamations, when their real meaning is hardly thought of. So with—

- (1) *Nouns and pronouns*: fire, nonsense, mercy, shame, what.
- (2) *Verbs*: help, behold, look, see, begone, bark, listen.
- (3) *Adjectives*: hail, well, welcome, strange, good, bravo.
- (4) *Adverbs, prepositions, and phrases*: out, indeed, how, why, back, forward, on, up; amen, O dear, dear me, farewell, adieu, good-by, good-day.

591. When such an expression, even though used alone, retains its original meaning, we may supply what is omitted, and treat the word as part of a sentence. Thus:—

Silence! (keep silence?) Good! (that is good?)

592. Sometimes, as when greatly excited, we abandon sentences altogether, and utter only the most important words, as, —

A sail! a sail! Now for the boats! Down with it!
Steady! Lower! To your oars, men!

593. *Punctuation.* *Rule.*—Every *interjection* but *O* must be followed by an *exclamation point* when used in a *very exclamatory way*.

EXERCISE 328.

1. Write sentences, using each of these words in the right way:—
O, alas, what, ho, Oh, oh, pshaw, hark, sh.
2. Give five or ten words used to imitate different animals.
3. What animals do you think the following are made to imitate?
tu-whit, tu-whoo; whirr; buzz; chick-a-dee;
whee-poor-will; twitter; chirp; belloo; whinny.

CHAPTER XXIII.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

[Review §§ 453-463.]

I. INFINITIVES.

594. **Infinitives** are in their nature partly nouns. First, being names (of actions, etc.), they are *nouns*, and they have the uses of nouns. Secondly, though they cannot assert, they are like verbs in meaning and they take the same modifiers or complements. Thus in —

I wish **to drive** my horse slowly,

to drive, like a noun, is the object of “wish,” and, like a verb, it expresses action, has an object, “horse,” and is modified by an adverb, “slowly.”

A. KINDS OR FORMS.

595. Nearly every verb has two simple infinitives; as, —

(**to drive**, **driving**; (**to run**, **running**;

named from their forms the **Root-infinitive** and the **Infinitive in ing**.

596. As verb-phrases are used instead of inflected forms, so too **infinitive phrases** are used instead of the simple forms to express certain changes of meaning.

597. A full list of *infinitive forms and phrase* will be found on page 249. Study it and give appropriate names to the following: —

To sing; to be lost; to have given; having found; printing; to have been writing; to be giving; to **be** given; being obeyed.

B. USES, OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

598. Either infinitive may be used as 1. **Subject**, 2. **Subjective Complement**, or 3. **Object** of a verb. Thus:—

Making (promises) is [not] keeping (them).

To have given (freely) is to be asked (for more).

She prefers sitting (quietly). She prefers to sit (quietly).

(a) An infinitive may be used as the *real subject* of a verb to explain the anticipative subject **it** (§ 363); as, —

It is dangerous (to trifle with-temptation).

(b) In these constructions the *infinitive in ing* may generally be substituted for the *root-infinitive*, and *vice versa*.

599. 4. The infinitive in *ing* may be the **Object of a preposition**. Thus:—

We are weary (with watching those men).

(Of making many books) there is (no) end.

(a) The root-infinitive is now used only after the prepositions **about** and **but**; as in —

I am about to go. They could do nothing (but fight).

EXERCISE 329.

Analyze these sentences, and **parse the infinitives**. [§ 604.]

1. To be good is to be happy. 2. It is impossible not to grow old.
3. Reading by twilight may injure the sight. 4. It is always best to tell the truth. 5. It was discouraging not to have been kindly received. 6. Seeming good is not being good. 7. Who would wish to be forgotten? 8. They refused to release the prisoner. 9. I have tried to do justice to everybody. 10. He dislikes being falsely accused.
11. The firm expects to be moving out to-morrow. 12. Do you regret having done no more? 13. We can improve by imitating good examples. 14. They know nothing about its having been written.
15. The dog did everything but speak to him.

600. 5. The root-infinitive with **to** may be used **Adjectively** like a prepositional phrase. Thus:—

Wood **to burn** (for burning). Horses **to let** (for letting).
 (The) question (to be decided) is (very) difficult.

- (a) It is also often used as a predicate adjective; as in,—
 Such conduct is **to be despised** (is *despicable*).
 He appears **to have lost his mind** (appears *insane*).

601. 6. The root-infinitive with **to**, like a prepositional phrase, may be used **Adverbially** to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, by showing the *purpose, cause, respect in which*, etc. Thus:—

We *need* the money **to pay** (for paying) the help.
 They are *slow* **to depart** (in departing).
 It is ripe *enough* **to eat** (for eating).

NOTE. When used adjectively or adverbially the *root-infinitive* may generally be replaced by *for* (*in, at, of, etc.*) and the *infinitive in ing*. As in,—

good **to drink** (*for drinking*); forced **to go** (*into going*);
 regret **to hear** (*at hearing*); failed **to come** (*of coming*).

602. 7. The root-infinitive is often used along with the object of a verb as the **Indirect Predicate** of it, the object and the infinitive being nearly equivalent to an objective noun-clause. Thus:—

We believed *it* **to be true** = We believed *that it was true*.
 I expected *him* **to come** = I expected *that he would come*.

NOTE. This construction is most common after verbs meaning *think, perceive, declare, command, permit*, and the like, taking the place of an indirect quotation. But the infinitive after these verbs may sometimes be explained in other ways.

In “I believed *him to be a liar*,” “*him*,” though made objective because it follows “believed,” is not meant to be separated from the following phrase.

603. After **bid, let, make, see, hear, feel, and have** an infinitive is used as indirect predicate without **to**. As in,—

We felt { the house **shake**. Hear the bells **ring**.
 { *that the house shook*. See her **play** tennis.

- (a) *Need* and *dare* sometimes take an object infinitive without *to*. As in,—
 He *need* not **go**. I *dare* not **jump**. *Need* they **return** at once?

604. SUMMARY: FORMS FOR PARSING.

Forms or Kinds.

is a	Simple		Infinitive; (or from) (root- or in the ing.)	of	{	Com. Tran. Cop.	Verb	{	— — —
	Simple	{ Pro. Pass.							
	Perfect								
	Perfect								
	{ Pro. Pass.								

Constructions.

1. **Subject** of the verb —.
- (a) Explanatory of the anticipative subject **it**.
2. **Subjective complement** of the verb —.
3. **Object** of the *verb* —.
4. **Object** of the *preposition* —.
5. Used **adjectively** { to modify the noun —.
as subjective complement of the verb —.
6. Used **adverbially** to modify the { verb —.
adjective —.
adverb —.
7. Used as **indirect predicate** of the object —.

EXERCISE 330.

Analyze the following sentences, and **parse** the infinitives. Suggest an equivalent phrase or clause when possible.

1. Have you time to hear my statement?
2. The company was to receive a thousand pounds.
3. Leaves have their time to fall.
4. Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast.
5. The Indians seem to be fading from the land.
6. I called immediately to see him.
7. My friends were delighted to receive the gifts.
8. She is too sensible to be flattered.
9. They are well able to bear the loss.
10. Be swift to hear, and slow to speak.
11. I expected him to go at once.
12. No one believed him to be so cruel.
13. We held it to be

an outrage. 14. I suppose it to have been him. 15. We have ordered the house to be vacated immediately. 16. They made the welkin ring with their hurrahs.

C. ERRORS IN THE USE OF INFINITIVES.

605. *A modifier must not be used between to and the rest of the infinitive.*

Say "They meant never *to return*," not "They meant *to* never return."

606. *Avoid using to alone in place of an infinitive.*

Say "He has broken his word and is likely *to break* it again," not "— and is likely *to* again."

"Do as I told you," not "Do as I told you *to*."

607. *Avoid the use of "and" for to.*

Say "Come *to* see me," not "Come *and* see me"; "Try *to* do your best," not "Try *and* do your best."

608. *Do not use perfect infinitive after a past tense when the simple form would express the meaning.*

Say "I intended *to go*," not "*to have gone*."

"We hoped *to be present*," not "*to have been present*."

EXERCISE 33I.

Point out the error in each of these sentences, and tell what rule is violated:—

1. We ought to carefully avoid errors.
2. I have done everything that you told me *to*.
3. We shall try and call upon you next week.
4. He was not obliged to have gone with me.
5. I ought to at least apologize, but I do not mean *to*.

• II. PARTICIPLES.

609. Participles are in part adjectives, for they modify nouns and pronouns; and they are in part verbs, for they take the same modifiers or complements. They do not assert that a thing does or is so and so, but they describe it so as to imply as much. Thus, in the sentence —

I met a man **driving** his sheep to market,

driving, like an adjective, modifies “man,” and, like a verb, takes an object, “sheep.” It describes the man as acting without asserting anything of him.

A. KINDS OR FORMS.

610. Nearly every verb has two simple participles named from their meaning —

- (1) The Present, Imperfect, or **Active** participle; as, —
driving, spinning, seeing, walking, sleeping; and —
- 2) The Past, Perfect, or **Passive** participle; as, —
driven, spun, seen, walked, slept.

611. In place of inflected forms we have four **participle-phrases**, — one formed with the *imperfect* participle, and three with the *perfect*.

Participle-forms and phrases may be found on page 249.

612. The **Present** participle always ends in **ing**. It commonly represents an action or a condition as continuing or *imperfect*, and it is almost always *active*; that is, it refers to the *actor*. Thus: —

Vessels **carrying** coal are constantly **arriving**.

613. The **Past** participle commonly ends in **en, ed, d, or t** (§ 461), and is generally *perfect*, representing an

action or a condition as completed. When used alone it is almost always *passive*; that is, it refers, not to the actor, but to *what is acted upon*. Thus:—

The army, **beaten** but not **vanquished**, slowly fell back.

B. USES, OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

614. I. The simple participles may be used as **Subjective Complements**. Thus:—

The flowers are **gone**. It seems **bewildering**. Night came **stealing** on. The place lay **deserted** for years.

(a) Used in this way, the participle often has some adverbial meaning, as in the last two examples.

(b) A participle may be used as an *objective complement*. Thus:—

Send the ball **rolling**. We shall keep you **occupied**.

615. II. Any participle may be added to a noun or a pronoun **appositively**. In such cases the idea would be more fully expressed,—

(1) *By an adjective-clause*; (2) *By an adverb-clause*; (3) *By an independent statement*; as,—

1 The books { **bought** for the library
 { that were bought for the library } are burned.

2 The dog went home { **having lost** his master.
 { because he had lost his master.

3. { **Reaching** for the bell-rope, } I pulled it vigorously.
 { I reached for the bell-rope, and }

616. III. Any participle may be used with a noun or a pronoun in the **Absolute construction** (§ 312), the two together having the force of an adverb-clause. Thus:—

[*Quiet having been restored*], (the) speaker continued.

617. Punctuation. RULE.—*Participle-phrases must generally be set off by commas unless used restrictively.*

618. SUMMARY: FORMS FOR PARSING.**Kinds or Forms.**

— is an	{	Imperfect	{	(Active)	} Part.; (or from)	of	{	Com.	} Verb	{	—		
		Present Perf.						Tran.			—		
	{	Progressive		(Passive)		the		Cop.			—		
		Perfect									—		
		Present Perf.											
		Progressive											

Constructions.

1. **Modifies** the noun (or pronoun) —.
2. **Complement** of the verb — referring to —.
3. Used **absolutely** with the noun (or pronoun) —.

EXERCISE 332.

Analyze these sentences, and **parse** the participles. Change each participle-phrase to a clause when possible.

1. The melancholy days are come.
2. I kept him working.
3. This noise is very confusing.
4. The mountain streams went babbling by.
5. Is not the breeze from the hills refreshing?
6. The fire was set burning by sparks from the engine.
7. The news set all the bells ringing.
8. We found some old planks badly rotted by the weather.
9. The sun goes down, lengthening the shadows.
10. What wonder is it that the girl, lost in such dreamy fancies, did not hear you.
11. Even the special train despatched at two did not arrive till four.
12. Having often seen him passing, I reasoned that the nest was near.
13. She brought some images stolen from the tombs by Arabs.
14. Once possessed of that fortune, he would wish it to be greater.
15. Punished or unpunished, he will never be conquered.
16. Ten times conquered, still you may be victor.
17. The rain having ceased to fall, we look for a rainbow.
18. The weather permitting, we shall set out to-morrow.
19. And the rocks now slipping from beneath their feet, they still refused to flee.
20. He had everything to fear from poisonous plants, the very sight of dogwood being dangerous.
21. She sat by the window, the sash raised, and the wind blowing a gale.
22. The army was in Belgium, the fleet being in the Channel, as we have said.

EXERCISE 333.

Analyze the following sentences, and **parse** the participles and infinitives. Expand participle-phrases to clauses, and tell how the clauses affect the meaning of the main statement.

1. Strive to keep your appointments. 2. I have but a few more words to say. 3. Cease to do evil; learn to do well. 4. The mere fact of his father's paying the debt is no proof of its being a proper expenditure. 5. It was no easy task to bridge the chasm. 6. To profess and to possess are very different. 7. Evil falls on him who goes to seek it. 8. Gone are the birds that were our summer guests.

9. His great work having been well done, he rests at last. 10. He that is good at making excuses is seldom good for anything else. Let him learn the luxury of doing good. 11. Let us prevent his anger by sacrificing ourselves. 12. The law is made to protect the innocent by punishing the guilty. 13. By observing truth we shall secure the respect of others. 14. He saw a star fall from heaven and vanish in utter darkness. 15. It is well to think well; it is divine to act well.

16. England owes her liberties to her having been conquered by the Norman. 17. Eyes raised towards heaven are always beautiful, what ever they be. 18. Selfishness is making one's self the most important personage in the world. Happiness shared is perfected. 19. Silently to persevere in one's duty is the best answer to calumny. 20. You find yourself refreshed by the presence of cheerful people. Why not make an earnest effort to confer that pleasure on others?

21. Freedom's battle, once begun,
Bequeathed from bleeding sire to son
Though baffled oft, is ever won.

22. Rest is not quitting the busy career;
Rest is the fitting of self to its sphere.
'Tis loving and serving the highest and best;
'Tis onwards! unswerving, and that is true rest.

23. To be graduated with a college diploma without having entered into the true spirit of college life by bearing an active part in its manifold and stimulating experiences, is to have failed of securing the best results of the course.

CHAPTER XXIV.

PHRASES, CLAUSES, AND COMBINED SENTENCES

REVIEW EXERCISE 334.

1. What are sentences? (§ 109.) 2. How are they divided with regard to kind? (§§ 113–117.) 3. How with regard to form? (§§ 187, 188, 365, 366.) 4. Define each kind. 5. What is a phrase? (§ 154.) 6. Name and define several kinds of phrases. (§§ 181, 224, 238, 561 (a), 562 (a).) 7. What is a clause? (§ 333.) 8. Name and define the kinds of clauses. (§§ 334, 342, 542.) 9. Name the modifiers of nouns and pronouns. (§§ 241, 334, 600, 609.) 10. Name the modifiers of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. (§§ 214 (b), 241, 552, 601, 614 (a).)

619. The Base of a Sentence. The *essential predicate* is always a verb or verb-phrase. The *subject*, *object*, or *subjective complement* may be —

1. **A Noun:** *Napoleon* overthrew the *government*, and became *Emperor*.

2. **A Pronoun:** *They* released *us*. Debtors are *those* in debt.

3. **An Adjective** [as *Subjective Complement* only]: They are *silent*.

4. **A Phrase:** { *Out of sight* is out of mind.
 To be absent is to be forgotten.
 His keeping busy prevented his being homesick.
 They will be in search of work.

5. **A Noun-clause:** { *What I learn* cannot be taken from me.
 We know *that life* is uncertain.
 The fact is *that he* is totally blind.

6. **A Quotation:** { "*I still live*" was the last that he said.
 His dying words were, "*Don't give up the ship.*"
 Galileo exclaimed, "*It does move.*"

(a) The subject in imperative sentences is generally omitted. *You*, *thou*, or *ye* may be supplied in analyzing.

620. Modifiers. Besides the modifiers named in § 241,

1. A *noun* or a *pronoun* may be modified by —

1. A **Participle** { **word:** They found him *wounded* and *dying*.
 { **phrase:** Some frail memorial, *still erected* *night*.
2. An **Infinitive-phrase:** A plan *to light the streets cheaply*.
3. An **Adjective clause:** Those *that think* govern those *that toil*.
4. An **Appositive Noun-clause:** Prove the *fact* | *that it is so*.
5. An **Explanatory Noun-clause:** It is true *that air has weight*.

621. II. A *verb*, *infinitive*, *participle*, *adjective*, or *adverb* may be modified by —

1. A **Noun** or **Noun-phrase:** Stay *a month*.
2. An **Infinitive-phrase:** { We came *to demand our rights*.
 { The land is pleasant *to live in*.
3. An **Adverb-clause:** Stand *wherever you like*.

622. Compound Elements. Any element in a sentence, whether a part of the base or a modifier, may be compounded of two or more simple elements usually joined by conjunctions. Thus:—

In Him we *live* and *move*. He is both *wise* and *good*.
 Speak *firmly* but *kindly*. Learn *who he is* and *where he is*.

EXERCISE 335.

Analyze these sentences, and show which elements of each sentence are compound:—

1. There health and plenty cheered the laboring swain.
2. Regular and daily exercise was the origin and secret of his health.
3. Gayly rode the hunters through the valleys or over the hills.
4. Love for study, a desire to do right, and care in the choice of friends were traits of his character.
5. We were deeply impressed by the majesty and sublimity of the cataract and its surroundings.
6. Which would they choose, to live at peace with none, or to die at peace with all?
7. Either sooner or later temperance fortifies and purifies the heart.
8. Make the house where gods may dwell, beautiful, entire, and clean.

623. Clauses. The different kinds of clauses must be carefully distinguished, and their connection with the rest of the sentence indicated clearly. The following forms may be used:—

- | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|--|
| I. | { | <p>— is an Adjective clause modifying the noun (or pronoun) —.</p> <p>The <i>clause-connective</i> is {</p> | { | <p>1. The relative pronoun <i>who, which, that, as.</i></p> <p>2. The relative adverbs <i>where, when, whence, why, etc.</i></p> |
| II. | { | <p>— is an Adverb-clause modifying the verb (adj. or adv.)</p> <p>— by denoting <i>time, place, cause, manner, comparison, condition, concession, purpose, etc.</i></p> <p>The <i>clause-connective</i> is {</p> | { | <p>1. The conj. adv. <i>where, when, while, whence, as, etc.</i></p> <p>2. The sub. conj. <i>till, before, after, if, for, because, as, than, that, etc.</i></p> |
| III. | { | <p>— is a Noun-clause; used</p> <p>The <i>clause-connective</i> is {</p> | { | <p>1. As <i>subject</i> of the verb —.</p> <p>2. As <i>object</i> of the verb —.</p> <p>3. As <i>object</i> of the prep. —.</p> <p>4. As <i>subjective complement</i> of —.</p> <p>5. In <i>apposition</i> with the noun —.</p> <p>6. To <i>explain the anticipative subject</i> (or object) <i>it</i>.</p> <p>1. The conj. pro. <i>what, whatever, whoever, etc.</i></p> <p>2. The conj. adv. <i>how, why, when where, etc.</i></p> <p>3. The sub. conj. <i>that</i> or <i>whether</i>.</p> |

624. In studying selections for analysis and parsing, observe the following directions:—

1. Consult the dictionary for the meaning of unfamiliar words.
2. Transpose the words into their common prose order, unless the construction seems clear to you.

3. Select the clauses and show how each is used.
4. Classify the sentence and analyze each part of it

EXERCISE 336.

1. Classify the clauses in these sentences, and show, according to the preceding forms, **how each is used.**

2. Parse the clause-connectives.

1. We acquire the strength that we overcome. 2. O Solitude where are the charms that sages have seen in thy face? 3. Life is what we make it. 4. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty. 5. What pleases you will please me. 6. The fact is that he has betrayed my confidence. 7. He knew not that the chieftain lay unconscious of his son. 8. It is in vain that you seek to escape.

9. While he slept the enemy came. 10. What he spake, though it lacked form a little, was not madness. 11. All that he does is to distribute what others produce. 12. He that fights and runs away may live to fight another day. 13. The best of what we do and are is poor enough. 14. I thank God that I never hated any man because he was poor or because he was ignorant. 15. A great many men, if put into the right position, would be Luthers or Columbuses. 16. No wonder you are deaf to all I say. 17. He whistled as he went, for want of thought. 18. Nothing waxeth old sooner than a good turn or a favor. 19. When faith is lost, when honor dies, the man is dead. 20. Be silent, or say something better than silence. 21. Patience is so like Fortitude, that she seems either her sister or her daughter.

22. His misery was such that none of his friends could refrain from weeping. 23. What stronger breastplate than a heart untainted? 24. Thrice is he armed who hath his quarrel just; and he but naked, though locked up in steel, whose conscience with injustice is corrupted. 25. Still the wonder grew that one small head could carry all he knew. 26. When Strength and Justice are true yoke-fellows, where can be found a mightier pair than they? 27. You will gain a good reputation, if you endeavor to be what you desire to appear. 28. He made it clear that the plan was impossible. 29. He felt as though himself were he on whose sole arm hung victory.

30. Whoever thinks a faultless piece to see,
Thinks what ne'er was, nor is, nor e'er shall be.

EXERCISE 337.

Analyze the following sentences, classifying the clauses, and parsing the words:—

1. To dare is great, but to bear is greater. 2. Write it on your heart that every day is the best day of the year. 3. Heaven is for those who think of it. 4. Live as though life were earnest, and life will be so. 5. Sweet it is to have done the thing one ought. 6. He that loveth makes his own the grandeur that he loves. 7. "Don't cross the bridge till you come to it" is a proverb old and of excellent wit. 8. There's nothing so contagious as pure openness of heart. 9. Who does the best his circumstance allows, does well, acts nobly; angels could do no more. 10. He is not worthy of the honeycomb that shuns the hives because the bees have stings.

11. Find thou always time to say some earnest word between the idle talk. 12. Duties are ours, but events are God's. 13. Brooding all day will not arm a man against misery. 14. Nothing that is shall perish utterly. 15. There's nothing but what's bearable as long as a man can work. 16. It is better to fight for the good than to rail at the ill. 17. Love all, trust a few, do wrong to none. 18. Corn growing, larks singing, garden full of flowers, fresh air on the sea—O, it is wonderful! 19. We always may be what we might have been. 20. It isn't so much what a man has that makes him happy, as it is what he doesn't want.

21. We are made happy by what we are, not by what we have. 22. A man's reach should exceed his grasp, or what's heaven for? 23. It's very easy finding reasons why other folks should be patient. 24. Who laughs at crooked men needs walk very straight. 25. We are such stuff as dreams are made of, and our little life is rounded with a sleep. 26. He who neglects the present moment throws away all he has. 27. "One soweth and another reapeth" is a verity that applies to evil as well as good. 28. Rich gifts wax poor when givers prove unkind. 29. Said he, "All that I am, my mother made me." 30. Since my country calls me, I obey. 31. The days are made on a loom whereof the warp and woof are past and future time. 32. Let me make the songs of a people, and I care not who makes the laws.

33. Words pass as wind, but where great deeds were done

A power abides, transfused from sire to son.

625. Variety of Expression. [See pp. 65–75.] Among the many ways of varying our forms of expression are the following :—

1. Passive forms may be used for active, and *vice versa*. [§ 503.] Thus :—

1. All <i>may make</i> mistakes.	1. Mistakes <i>may be made</i> by all.
----------------------------------	--

2. The introductory *there* or *it* may be used. [§§ 249, 363.] Thus :—

1. A messenger came.	1. <i>There</i> came a messenger.
2. To retreat was impossible.	2. <i>It</i> was impossible to retreat.

3. Words may be expanded to phrases, and phrases to clauses. [§ 99.] Thus :—

1. <i>Japanese</i> tea.	1. Tea <i>raised in Japan</i> .
2. The <i>inventor of the telephone</i> .	2. He <i>that invented the telephone</i> .
3. <i>Before sailing</i> .	3. <i>Before they had sailed</i> .
4. The voyage <i>having begun</i> .	4. <i>When the voyage had begun</i> .

4. Clauses may be contracted to phrases. Thus :—

1. Gray, <i>who wrote the poem</i> .	1. Gray, <i>the author of the poem</i> .
2. Regions <i>that Stanley explored</i> .	2. Regions <i>explored by Stanley</i> .
3. <i>After we left Paris</i> .	3. <i>Having left Paris</i> .
4. I thought <i>that he was worthy</i> .	4. I thought <i>him worthy</i> .
5. Come <i>before the sun has risen</i> .	5. Come <i>before sunrise</i> .

5. Simple sentences may be combined into either compound or complex sentences. Thus :—

1. The Americans were not contending for money. They were contending for a principle. They refused to receive the tea.

1. The Americans were not contending for money, but for a principle, and they refused to receive the tea. (Compound.) Or—

1. As the Americans were not contending for money, but for a principle, they refused to receive the tea. (Complex.)

6. Negative may be used for affirmative assertions, and interrogative for assertive sentences. [§ 557 (b).] Thus :—

1. Such pleasures attracted him.	1. Such pleasures were not unattractive to him.
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- | | |
|---|---|
| 2. We have suffered enough. Let us defend our rights. | 2. Have we not suffered enough? Shall we not defend our rights? |
|---|---|

EXERCISE 338.

1. Change the italicized expression in some one of the ways mentioned in the preceding section without changing the meaning. **Describe** the change you have made.

1. The *author of the book* is in Egypt. 2. The note is payable *on demand*. 3. He *cancelled his liabilities*. 4. I shall see you *on my return*. 5. They thought *me honest*. 6. I gave you the book *that you might read it*. 7. *If you call* you will see him. 8. *Morning dawning*, all fears were dispelled. 9. Intemperance *ruins* many a youth. 10. No place is like home. 11. It is by careful saving that men grow rich. 12. Shame being lost, all is lost. 13. We did not know *that our friend was ill*. 14. The miser is *unhappy*. 15. No man is perfect. 16. *As the king was dead*, a dispute arose as to the succession. 17. The light struggles dimly through windows *which are darkened by dust*. 18. Many men who have made wonderful inventions have died poor. 19. *After passing Congress* the bill *was signed* by the President. 20. The treaty *which Jay negotiated* was approved by the Senate.

2. Combine the following groups of simple sentences into **compound or complex sentences**.

1. Sir Walter Raleigh received from Queen Elizabeth a charter. It gave him a large territory in America. He sent out an exploring expedition in 1584. 2. In 1607 three ships carried out a handful of people. They began the settlement of the United States. The largest one was named "Susan Constant." 3. One of the most industrious men in the colony was John Smith. He was a young man. He had had many adventures. He was fond of boasting of them. 4. The English government sent tea to Boston. A company of fifty men threw it into the sea. The men had disguised themselves as Indians. 5. Paul Revere was an active patriot. The British had started for Lexington. He was sent to tell this to Adams and Hancock. They were in that town. 6. Geoffrey Chaucer was the first great English poet. He was the author of the "Canterbury Tales." He was born in 1340. He died in 1400.

Selections for Analysis and Parsing.¹

1. Attention is the stuff that memory is made of, and memory is accumulated genius.

2. Wise sayings often fall on barren ground; but a kind word is never thrown away.

3. A great writer has said that grace is beauty in action: I say that justice is truth in action.

4. How easy it is for one benevolent being to diffuse pleasure around him; and how truly is a kind heart a fountain of gladness, making everything in its vicinity freshen into smiles.

5. If we do not plant knowledge when young, it will give us no shade when we are old.

6. To know by rote is no knowledge; it is only a retention of what is intrusted to the memory. What a man truly knows may be disposed of without regard to the author, or reference to the book whence he had it.

7. Alexander the Great, reflecting on his friends' degenerating into sloth and luxury, told them that it was a most slavish thing to luxuriate, and a most royal thing to labor.

8. Oh, what a glory doth this world put on for him who, with a fervent heart, goes forth under the bright and glorious sky!

9. Few men learn the highest use of books. After life-long study many a man discovers too late that to have had the philosopher's stone availed nothing without the philosopher to use it.

10. If the poor and humble toil that we may have food, must not the high and glorious toil for him in return, that he have light, guidance, freedom, immortality?

11. Words are the leaves of the tree of knowledge, of which, if some fall away, a new succession takes their place.

12. The busy world shoves angrily aside
The man who stands with arms akimbo set,
Until the occasion tells him what to do;
And he who waits to have his task marked out
Shall die and leave his errand unfulfilled.

¹ *To the Teacher.* — Other sentences for analysis and parsing may be found on pages 10, 11, 74, 75, 76. All school readers of course furnish abundant and varied material for practice.

13. Failure after long perseverance is much grander than never to have a striving good enough to be called a failure.

14. When the Breton sailor puts to sea, his prayer is, "Keep me, my God, for my boat is so small and Thy ocean is so wide."

15. 'Tis greatly wise to talk with our past hours,
And ask them what report they bore to heaven.

16. The happiest man is he who, being above the troubles which money brings, has his hands the fullest of work.

17. It is seldom that we find how great a man is until he dies.

18. Nine times out of ten, the best thing that can happen to a young man is to be tossed overboard and compelled to sink or swim for himself. In all my acquaintance I never knew a man to be drowned who was worth the saving.

19. If the way in which men express their thoughts is slipshod and mean, it will be very difficult for their thoughts themselves to escape being the same.

20. Learn from the earliest days to inure your principles against the perils of ridicule; you can no more exercise your reason, if you live in the constant dread of laughter, than you can enjoy your life if you are in the constant terror of death.

21. Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing, onward through life he goes;
Each morning sees some task begin, each evening sees its close;
Something attempted, something done, has earned a night's
repose.

22. For manhood is the one immortal thing
Beneath Time's changeful sky,
And, where it lightened once, from age to age,
Men come to learn, in grateful pilgrimage,
That length of days is knowing when to die.

23. Press on! surmount the rocky steeps;
Climb boldly o'er the torrent's arch:
He fails alone who feebly creeps;
He wins who dares the hero's march.
Be thou a hero! let thy might
Tramp on eternal snows its way,
And through the ebon walls of night,
Hew down a passage unto day.

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